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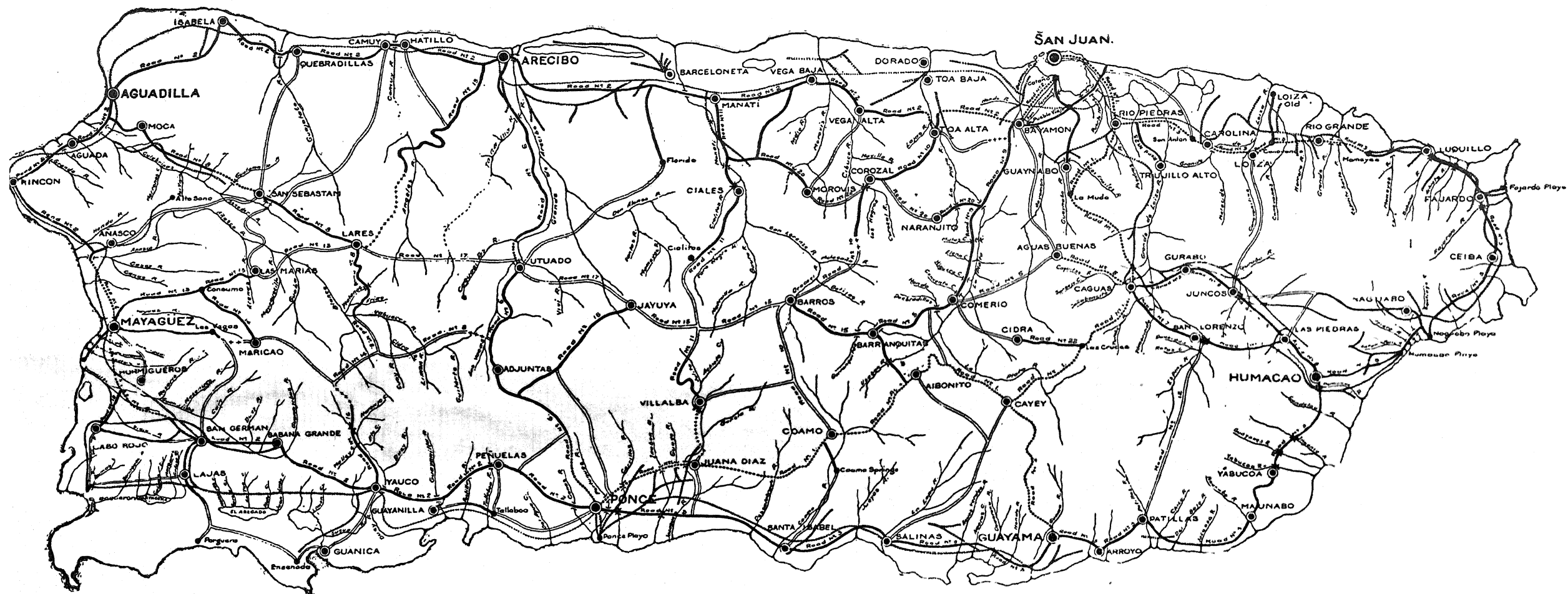


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MAP OF THE ISLAND OF PORTO RICO.

EDUCATION IN PORTO RICO

By

JOHN JOSEPH OSUNA, PH.D.

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
CONTRIBUTIONS TO EDUCATION, NO. 133

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TO
MY STUDENTS
THIS BOOK IS
AFFECTIONATELY DEDICATED

PREFACE

THIS account of Education in Porto Rico was suggested by Dr. Isaac L. Kandel, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who pointed out the fact that this was a new problem in American Education. Porto Rico is a part of the United States and in all probability she will remain permanently American territory. To-day her citizens are citizens of the United States. Her problems, educational or otherwise, are closely linked with those of the American commonwealth. The Island has to-day an American school system with four hundred years of Spanish background. These circumstances make of Porto Rico a new problem in American education.

In order to appreciate better the institutions of the Spanish régime, the author spent a part of a year's residence in Spain, the mother country, studying her institutions and especially the system of public instruction, including the elementary schools, the institutes, the universities, together with the new movements for educational reform. This also gave the author, himself a native Porto Rican of Spanish descent, an opportunity to observe the psychology of the Spanish people and the customs and peculiarities of the different regions.

The authority for whatever may be found in this dissertation was derived from the literature on the subject and from first-hand information of the schools both in Spain and in Porto Rico, as well as from interviews with educators of both countries. For the legal basis constant reference was made to *Documentos para la Historia Escolar de España*, by Lorenzo Luzuriaga; the many volumes of *El Anuario Legislativo de Instrucción Pública*, and the other educational documents, laws, and regulations collected in *El Museo Pedagógico*, Madrid; *Compilación Legislativa de Primera Enseñanza de la Isla de Puerto Rico y Formularios para toda clase de servicios relacionados con la Instrucción Primaria*, by Juan Macho Moreno; the several editions and compilations of the school laws of Porto Rico since the American occupation, and the reports of the Governors and Commissioners of Education for Porto Rico.

By the courteous generosity of Dr. Stephen Pierce Duggan, Director of The Institute of International Education, New York, the author was introduced to Doctor José Castillejo, Secretary of La Junta

para Ampliación de Estudios e Investigaciones Científicas, who in turn introduced him to Doctor Manuel Bartolomé Cossio, Director of El Museo Pedagógico and La Institución Libre de Enseñanza. The latter introduced him to leading educators all over the Peninsula. If everybody to whom the author is under obligation were named, the list would be too long; but special mention should be made in this brief preface to the kindness of Doctor Cossio and Doctor Castillejo and their associates; to the officers of La Mancomunidad de Cataluña, and to many other prominent educators, publishers, statesmen and men of affairs who showed all possible courtesy and kindness. The librarians of La Biblioteca Nacional in Madrid were most accommodating, and without their assistance it would have been impossible to secure access to the rare books and documents in that library.

Thanks are also due to Miss Elizabeth G. Baldwin and her associates in the Bryson Library, Teachers College, for their interest in this work and their untiring efforts to secure sources from wherever they could be found; to the Librarian and other employees of the Hispanic Society of America, New York, and to the employees of the New York Public Library for their assistance in securing sources; to Dr. Paul Monroe for his interest and suggestions during the author's student days at Teachers College; to Drs. Edward H. Reiser and Frederick G. Bonser, for valuable suggestions during their review of this dissertation, and especially to Dr. Isaac L. Kandel, whose broad scholarship and interest in international educational problems was a constant inspiration, and without whose help this work would have been impossible.

This account would not be complete without expressing due thanks to Dr. Cayetano Coll y Toste for constant reference to his book, *Historia de la Instrucción Pública en Puerto Rico*; to Dr. Paul G. Miller, on whose reports and opinions the author has relied a great deal; to Mr. José Padín and Mr. Gildo Massó for painstaking hours spent in reading the manuscript, although they are in no way responsible for any errors that no doubt have crept in or for any misjudgments. Finally the author is indebted to his students at the University of Porto Rico for their fair criticism in the class room.

J. J. OSUNA

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EDUCATION · IN PORTO RICO

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: GEOGRAPHY AND POPULATION OF PORTO RICO

Location. The Island of Porto Rico, the most easterly and the smallest of the Greater Antilles, lies within the tropics, between latitudes $17^{\circ} 54'$ and $18^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitudes $65^{\circ} 35'$ and $67^{\circ} 15'$ west. It occupies a position about midway in the chain of islands connecting Florida and Venezuela, and separating the Caribbean Sea from the Atlantic Ocean. It is about 450 miles east and slightly south of Cuba; about 500 miles north of the nearest point of Venezuela; about 1,000 miles from Colon, Panama; and about 1,500 miles from New York and New Orleans, and a little more than twice that distance from Gibraltar.

Area. The Island is rectangular in shape with its longest axis east and west. Together with the adjacent islands it has a total area of 3,435 square miles or about 2,198,400 acres, being about one hundred miles long and thirty-five miles wide. Thus the territory as a whole is about five-sixths the size of the island of Hawaii, and four times as large as Long Island.

Physiography. A range of hills and low mountains runs east and west somewhat south of the middle of the Island. The highest elevation, in the central part, due south of Jayuya, is 4,398 feet, while the altitude of the other peaks is from 2,000 to 3,950 feet. Northward and southward from the crest the land slopes very irregularly down to the sea. It is deeply cut by streams, the largest of which, Rio Grande de Loiza, Rio de la Plata, Bayamón, Morovis and Arecibo, are on the northern slope. None of them is navigable. The southern slope is shorter and steeper and the streams on this side are smaller. Approaching the sea the land is less uneven and near the coast it spreads into broad, level plains with excellent soil adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane and cocoanuts. The coast line is simple and there are good harbors: San Juan on the north, Mayagüez and Aguadilla on the west, Guánica, Ponce and Arroyo on the south, and Humacao and Fajardo on the east.

Transportation. Transportation facilities are generally good. A railroad runs almost around the Island with branches to certain interior towns. The total railway mileage to-day is about three hundred miles. There is no railroad across the Island and no immediate necessity for one since excellent highways serve the interior. Freight is transported by auto-truck and ox-cart and most of the passenger traffic back from the coast is done by automobile. There is now in Porto Rico a total of 1,100 miles of good roads and more are constantly being built.

Climate. Porto Rico is within the path of the south-west trade winds which blow with much regularity. The annual average temperature in San Juan ranges from 78° to 82° F. The mean monthly temperature varies from 75° in January to 82° F. in August; the climate being very uniform as the highest temperature on record is 103° F., and the lowest 43° F. The differences of temperature observed throughout the Island are due to variations of altitude.

Storms and Rainfall. Severe storms and earthquakes occur from time to time, the three most severe in the nineteenth century being, "San Felipe" in 1825, "San Narciso" in 1867, and "San Ciriaco" in 1899. Rainfall is plentiful, although the southern part of the Island suffers from droughts, so much so that in some regions irrigation is necessary for the cultivation of crops. The average rainfall in San Juan averages 77.30 inches. Nearly two-thirds of this falls in the summer and autumn. The annual humidity in San Juan is high, averaging not far from 80°. Eastward from San Juan the rainfall increases, exceeding 135 inches on the northeast. The high lands of the interior also have a heavy rainfall.

Population: Aborigines. The original population of Porto Rico, like that of the rest of the American continent, was Indian. No one knows just how thickly populated the Island was at the time of its discovery by Columbus, but judging from the Indian wars with the Spaniards the native population was rather large and somewhat organized. However, as a result of war, disease, emigration to other islands, hard labor in the mines and other slavish drudgeries to which the Indians were unaccustomed, the native population rapidly disappeared. Hardly a remnant of it exists to-day, although the Indian features can still be observed in many of the inhabitants.

Colored. Importation of negroes into Porto Rico was authorized as early as 1513, but did not begin on any considerable scale until 1530. By 1553 one thousand five hundred negroes had been legally

imported. The rate of importation of negro slaves increased as the Indian population decreased. The total black population of the Island in 1872 was given as 257,709, of whom only 31,635 were slaves. These were given their freedom on March 22, 1873. The slaves were as a general rule humanely treated and were granted many privileges, among them the right of purchasing their own freedom, of which many took advantage.

The total population and its classification as white or colored is given for 1860, 1887 and 1899 by the census made in each of those years, as follows:

	1860	1887	1899
Total Whites	300,406	474,933	589,426
Total Colored	282,775	323,632	363,817
Total Population	583,181	798,565 ¹	953,243

It will be noted that the percentage of whites in the total population increases with each census period, being 51.4 per cent in 1860, 59.4 per cent in 1887 and 61.8 per cent in 1899.

The figures for the subsequent years, more exactly classified, are as follows:

<i>Class</i>	1910		<i>Class</i>	1920	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>		<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Whites	732,555	65.5	Whites	948,709	73.
Colored	385,437	34.5	Colored	351,062	27.
Chinese	12		Chinese	32	
Japanese	8		All others	6	
Total	1,118,012	100.	Total	1,299,809	100.

¹Does not include 8,143 absent residents.

CHAPTER II

SPANISH BACKGROUND AND CHURCH CONTROL OF EDUCATION

In writing on education in Porto Rico, the temptation is to neglect the origins; to think of education as beginning at a time when we have a record of school laws and of the provision made by the government. But legislation or governmental provision for education does not mark the beginning of education in any country. Legislation generally follows years of private enterprise, of work by pioneers whose efforts are recognized at last by the government. Governmental educational legislation, with the exception of Germany and Russia, is comparatively a modern movement as most of the European countries had done very little for popular education before the nineteenth century.

In a study of any of the Spanish colonies in America, it is well first to turn to Spain, noting what heritage she had to give to her colonies. Porto Rico was a Spanish colony for over four hundred years. She is Spanish in blood, in religion, in customs and in traditions. What did she inherit academically from the mother country? What were Spain's cultural traditions and what had she done for popular education since its unification under Ferdinand and Isabella?

The Unification of Spain. With the marriage of Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon, a large part of the Spanish peninsula was united under one central government, which meant not only territorial unification, but united efforts against the Moors. The kingdom of the latter was finally conquered in 1492 and thus the monarchical unity was completed at the same time that America was being discovered, conquered and explored.² Besides territorial union at home, through the claims of the royal house of Aragon to the Neapolitan and Sicilian kingdoms, in 1504, Ferdinand definitely secured recognition from France of his rights in Naples, Sicily and Sardinia. While interfering little with the local governments of the respective

²Navarre was conquered by Ferdinand in 1515.

kingdoms, the King and Queen worked ever toward political hegemony, religious uniformity and absolutism. They did this by matrimonial ties with the ruling houses of Europe and by conquest of arms; by enlisting the Church in their service which gave rise to the expulsion of the Jews, the forceful conversion of the Mohammedan subjects and the establishment of the Inquisition; and by ingratiating themselves with the middle class and stripping the nobility in their respective kingdoms of its political influence.

Education for the Nobility. The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella is noted for a general interest in cultural studies. The taste for letters and for arts in the peninsula, the spirit of the Italian Renaissance, which spread throughout the sister kingdom, and the impulse given to scientific study by the discovery of America gave impetus to all branches of learning and ushered in the golden age of Spanish culture. Isabella sought the most famous European teachers for her sons, which example affected all the nobility. Princes and courtiers endowed chairs, maintained lectures and erected imposing buildings for the universities. Many colleges were founded in which the nobility secured the best education available at that time. Spanish scholars sought the universities of Italy and France in which they perfected their studies begun at home.

Popular Education Neglected. But this was a movement among the nobility and the wealthy classes. In the meantime the masses were neglected. The only official action toward popular education was a mere confirmation by the sovereigns of an order of Henry II of about the year 1370, which was concerned generally with elementary teachers, their examination, preparation, personal requirements and privileges. The teachers, after fulfilling the requirements, were permitted to receive pupils. This legislation was effective for all the Spanish territory of the time. The central authority was the King with the advice of El Consejo de Castilla. This council examined the teachers and issued teaching certificates or permits. Ferdinand and Isabella confirmed this order in 1500.³ These certified teachers opened schools, received pupils, made a living as best they could, and were more or less protected by royal favor. In the meantime the Church continued its usual activities in elementary education, as was the custom in all Christian countries at this time.

³Luzuriaga, Lorenzo: *Documentos para la Historia Escolar de España*, compiled by Lorenzo Luzuriaga, being the results of researches done in the Department of History, Centro de Estudios Históricos, Madrid, under the leadership of Don Rafael Altamira, published in 1916. This document is found in Vol. I, pp. 1-9.

Discovery and Colonization of Porto Rico. Porto Rico was discovered by Christopher Columbus on November 16, 1493, during his second voyage to America. He landed in Aguada and took possession in the name of the reigning sovereigns of Spain three days later. In view of reports that the mountain streams abounded with gold, Nicholas de Ovando, the Governor of Santo Domingo, sent Juan Ponce de Leon to explore the Island. He landed near Aguadilla with a small party of Spaniards and a few Indian guides. Being received kindly by the Indians, Ponce de Leon had an opportunity to verify the reports of gold and other minerals. He returned to Santo Domingo and was sent back to make a more thorough exploration. At this time he received a temporary appointment as Governor of Porto Rico on August 14, 1509. This appointment was confirmed on June 15, 1510. He took charge and founded the town of Caparra, about three miles from San Juan. This town was later transferred to the present site of the city of San Juan and named Puerto Rico. Several wars with the Indians followed, due to the fact that they were enslaved by the settlers. In these wars a great many casualties occurred on the side of the Spaniards and many Spanish settlements were completely destroyed before the settlers succeeded in subduing the natives.

Educational Beginnings in Porto Rico. The first efforts to establish educational institutions in Porto Rico were made by the Church. The Spanish colonists in America were accompanied by priests, who besides looking after the spiritual welfare of the settlers were also the friends of the Indians and were charged by the King and Queen to protect them from the cruelty of the colonists. As early as 1511, or two years after the settlement of the Island, King Ferdinand ordered the establishment of a monastery in charge of the Franciscan monks. They were to care for the material and spiritual welfare of the Indians and were also to instruct their children in the faith.⁴ Owing to lack of funds the monastery was not established at this time, but it is mentioned because it was the first attempt to establish a church school for the instruction of the Indians. As in the mother country the places of worship were also used for school purposes. The teaching was primarily religious and largely confined to the catechism, but it was also the purpose of the priests to teach the language to the natives as early as possible. As early as 1511, in the instructions given to Juan Ceron and Miguel Diaz, they were instructed to teach the

⁴Tapia y Rivera: *Biblioteca Histórica de Puerto Rico*, p. 102.

children the basis of the Christian faith so that they might go out and teach others.⁵

The Hapsburgs in Spain. The unification of Spain demanded a policy of nationalization. The many kingdoms under the Spanish throne as well as the colonies in America needed to be brought together culturally as well as politically. Ferdinand and Isabella were the rulers of a vast territory which was not by any means a unit. It should have been knit together into a nation by means of internal developments and the spread of a common culture; but with the rise of the House of Hapsburg this nationalization was neglected as the rulers of this dynasty were called upon to rule many nations of vast territory and were not able to concentrate their attention upon the development of any one in particular. This policy of imperialism drew Spain into many wars which were a constant drain upon her treasury and man power. Besides the political situation, the rulers of Spain took upon themselves the responsibility of stamping out heresy and attempting to check the progress of the Protestant Reformation.

Spanish Culture Under the House of the Hapsburgs. As it was natural with the increase of the royal prerogative, the Spanish universities and culture in general enjoyed a period of unusual prosperity and fame. Besides the universities there were many colleges founded by the Church and authorized by the Pope to confer degrees. Other colleges sprang up around the universities and dependent upon them. It is said that Salamanca at its most flourishing period registered as many as 7,000 students and that the city possessed also four higher colleges and twenty-two inferior. At Alcalá de Henares, besides the university there were thirteen inferior colleges.⁶ The greatest educational event in Spain during the sixteenth century was the organization of the Society of Jesus in 1540 by Ignatius de Loyola, which, although in its early years it did not make the country of its origin the chief field of activity, nevertheless takes its place in history as the contribution of Spain to the forces which have shaped education throughout the Christian world. The Jesuit colleges as well as the universities were for the nobility, for the wealthy and for boys of promise. They were not for the common people.

Popular Education. There was not the same thought and interest

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 114, 11°. "Tómense los mas niños Indios que ser pueda para doctrinarlos como en la Española; Ellos podrán doctrinar a otros con mayor fruto. Tordesillas 25 de julio de 1511."

⁶Monroe, Paul: *Encyclopedia of Education*, p. 380.

in popular education. The education of the people was carried on by the Church and by private teachers who taught those pupils who could pay a fee. However, royal favor to popular education was manifested and Charles I (Charles V of Germany) in 1540 confirmed the order of Henry II.⁷ Philip II, in 1573, confirmed the actions of his predecessors and extended the privileges of the teachers of the secondary schools and universities to the elementary school teachers. School visitors were to be appointed in every community to see that the orders of the king were carried out.⁸ Thirty-six years later, in 1609, Philip III issued an order likewise confirming the orders of his predecessors.⁹ Up to this time and for some time following, government intervention in elementary education consisted in certifying teachers, who went out, opened schools, accepted pupils who could pay, made a living as best they could, and were more or less protected by royal favor.

La Hermandad de San Casiano. By the beginning of the seventeenth century, the teachers of Madrid had begun to organize and before the middle of the century they had formed a society which controlled elementary education in Spain for over a century. This society was La Hermandad de San Casiano or the Fraternity of Saint Casiano. The exact date of its origin is not known but it must have been well organized by the year 1642. It began as a society of the teachers of Madrid, taking its name from a bishop and martyr by the name of Saint Casiano. The aim of the society was to protect and improve elementary education.¹⁰ This fraternity, which later became known as the Congregation of Saint Casiano with its jurisdiction extended over the whole nation, was practically in charge of elementary education until the year 1780, when it was terminated by the brethren themselves. Whatever educational legislation was issued during this period was either issued directly by the society or by the government on its advice.¹¹ The other teaching congregations kept up their activities in elementary education.

Schools and Their Curriculum and Teachers. There were separate and combined elementary schools for boys and girls. The curriculum chiefly consisted of catechism, reading, writing and ciphering. The teachers did not have to be members of the teaching order but received their certificates and instructions from the fraternity. They were free to open their schools where they wished and to collect fees

⁷Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, pp. 1-9.

⁹*Ibid.*, pp. 17-18.

¹¹*Ibid.*, pp. 19-134.

⁸*Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, pp. 19.

from their pupils. There was keen competition among teachers and much "stealing" of pupils so that rules had to be issued prohibiting such actions. To prevent pupils unable to pay their fees from changing teachers no one was allowed to accept a pupil who owed money to another teacher.

Effects of European Wars on Porto Rico. The progress of Porto Rico during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was very slow. Efforts were put forth to develop the country by importing animals and tropical products, but the political situation in the mother country and her wars with other European powers, favored by the strategic position of the Island, made of Porto Rico a center of attack by the enemies of Spain. During the reign of the Hapsburgs the Island was attacked twelve times by the English, the French and the Dutch. It was not a self-supporting colony and treasures were brought from Mexico to defray her expenses, but these were often captured by Spain's enemies and by pirates. Besides these foreign wars the settlers had frequent encounters with the Indians, and also during the two centuries eight cyclones swept through the Island, destroying life and property. The slow progress can be surmised.

Educational Conditions in Porto Rico, 1520-1700. Education continued to be a function of the Church. As the settlements became well established, the Church, just as it aimed to teach the children, aimed to train the priests to minister to the Indians and to the settlers. Those desiring to prepare for the priesthood studied in the monasteries while the parish church served as the educational center for the children. Here they were taught the catechism, the prayers, and to read and write.

Dominican Monastery. In 1523, when Diego Columbus, the son of the discoverer, was the Governor of the Island, the Dominican monks petitioned the King, Charles I, for an order to establish a monastery in San Juan. The permission was secured and the building begun. It was finished in 1529. In the same year the Bishop of La Española, on a trip through the Island, reported to His Majesty, the King, that there were twenty-five students in the monastery.¹² This was the first institution of learning in Porto Rico. At about the same time the Franciscan monks established a monastery in

¹²Colección de Documentos Inéditos relativos al descubrimiento de América y Oceanía, Vol. 37, p. 559. In *Archivo de Indias Patronato Est.* 2. Laj 1. Leg. 3.

Aguada under a few straw huts.¹³ This was destroyed soon after by the Indians.

The Parish Church as a Center of Learning. In 1528 the King advised the Bishop and the Governor of Porto Rico with regard to the education of the children as follows: "and in order that the children may be better indoctrinated in the faith it is ordered that all children between the ages of six and twelve who are in your care should be taken to the Church every morning in order that they might be instructed in the Christian faith."¹⁴ According to Dr. Colly Toste, before 1582 an empty hospital building in San Juan, Sanct Alifonso, was utilized for school purposes and the teacher was paid from a donation given for the purpose by a certain Anton Lucas. In 1589, some money was left by a certain Francisco Ruiz to the cathedral in San Juan to pay the teacher of grammar connected with that church.¹⁵ By the year 1607, there was a building under the palm trees adjoining the cathedral wherein lived prebendaries who performed their duties as priests and at the same time "read grammar" to the children of the community. The house was burned during the Dutch siege of San Juan in 1625¹⁶ but it was rebuilt and the classes continued. Jose de Jarava, who was the teacher of grammar here in 1641, placed the following Latin inscription on the outside of the door:

Hic habitant musae hic servant

Sua pignora parcae

Vivere disce puer dogmata disce mori.¹⁷

The Franciscan Order. The Franciscans made another effort to establish themselves in the Island more than one hundred years after their second attempt. On September 11, 1641, a royal order was issued giving them permission to build in San Juan. The town council donated a lot and the corner stone was laid October 3, 1642. The work of teaching began immediately but the building was delayed for lack of funds. In 1650 the building was only a "ranchón" or shed roofed with "yaguas."¹⁸ But the next year, Don Diego de Aguilera, then Governor, forced soldiers to work on the building and it was soon finished.¹⁹

¹³Brau, Salvador: *La Colonización de Puerto Rico*, pp. 326-27.

¹⁴Tapia y Rivera, *op. cit.*, p. 114.

¹⁵Coll y Toste, *Historia de la Instrucción Pública en Puerto Rico*, p. 13.

¹⁶Brau, *Historia de Puerto Rico*, p. 119.

¹⁷Tapia y Rivera, *op. cit.*, p. 487.

¹⁸A part of the palm leaf.

¹⁹Brau, *Historia de Puerto Rico*, p. 157.

Report on Educational Conditions. On September 27, 1644, the Bishop of Porto Rico sent a report to the King in which he mentions the churches of San Juan, San German and Guadianilla. In the personnel of the cathedral in San Juan, he mentions "dos docenas de estudiantes gramáticos," two dozen grammar students.²⁰ With reference to the convents he mentions the following: One convent of Santo Domingo in San Juan with thirty students, one convent of Santo Domingo in San German with two students and one Franciscan convent in San Juan with six students.²¹

Early Education of Girls. The girls, like the boys, were educated by the Church. In 1623 a Doctor Balbuena tried to secure a permit to build a convent for the Carmelite nuns, but was refused until enough money could be secured to build and furnish the institution. Then Doña Ana de Cauzos gave her farm for the purpose and on July 1, 1646, a royal order was issued authorizing the building of the convent.²² After this follows many years of silence regarding the establishment of schools of any kind. It is natural to suppose that the work of the monasteries and convents continued and that these institutions together with private classes by priests and private teachers were the means of instruction for the few who could afford to pay for an education, this being the practice in the mother country. The teaching in the churches among the poorer classes generally confined itself to the prayers and the catechism.

Spain in the Eighteenth Century. With the fall of the House of

²⁰Manuscript in Biblioteca Nacional, Madrid (unpublished). Library reference No. 3047. Relación de lo que es la Isla de Puerto Rico enviada por el Obispo en 1644. Folio 1. "y en conclusion lo mejor que tiene esta ciudad son las vrigas y elagua, con que todos quedamos con salud, adios graçias, por donde un hombre a quien pidió una señora de Santo Domingo que le diese noticias berdaderas, de lo que era esta ciudad le respondió en el soneto:—

Esta es señora, una pequeña yslilla
falta de bastimentos y dinero
andan los negros como en esa en cueros
y ay mas gente en la carcel de Sevilla.
Aqui estan los blasones de castilla
en pocas casas muchos caballeros
todos tratantes en xemxibre y cueros
los Mendoças, Guzmanes y el Padilla.
Ay agua en los aljibes si allovido
yglesia cathedral clérigos pocos
hermosas damas faltas dedonayre
la ambincion y laimbidia aqui annaçido
Mucho calor y sombra de los cocos
y es lo mejor de todo un poco de ayre."

²¹Same manuscript in Biblioteca Nacional, folio 7.

²²Brau, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

Hapsburg in Spain and the seating of the House of Bourbon, the nation looked to the future with greater hope of recovering her lost power. The first four Bourbons (1700-1808) were intensely interested in Spanish national problems. They aimed to restore the national wealth, to foster agriculture, re-establish industry and commerce, and particularly to provide for the diffusion of culture. But Spain's imperialistic traditions and her relationship with the French kings kept her busy in military adventures which were a drawback to the plans of reconstruction. With the succession of Charles III (1759-1788) better days dawned. Although the nation was involved in the war between France and England in 1761, this did not disturb the course of the internal administration to the improvement of which men like Aranda, Campomanes, Olavides and Florida Blanca devoted themselves. Charles was a sincerely benevolent despot and with the aid of these able ministers he made many improvements. He suppressed the Jesuits, checked the exaggerated zeal of the Inquisition, put police in the streets of Madrid, encouraged German farmers to settle in Spain, built roads and canals, fostered manufactures, patronized science and nearly doubled the fleet. During his reign the revenues of the nation tripled and its population increased from seven to eleven millions. With the death of Charles III, his son Charles IV at first followed the reforming policy of his father; but in 1792 when Florida Blanca was superseded by Godoy as Prime Minister, the hope of reform was very much at stake. Spain had opposed the French Republic and joined in the war against it, but by the influence of Godoy the peace of Basel was concluded, in which Spain resigned Santo Domingo to France, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with her in 1796 and declared war against Britain. The events which followed made of the reign of the fourth Bourbon a complete catastrophe, dominated mainly by the Prime Minister. His reign ended with his abdication in favor of his son, Ferdinand, and with the transfer of the whole Spanish royal household to Bayonne by Napoleon in 1808.

Education in Spain in the Eighteenth Century. Spanish connection with the French ruling house as well as many events which brought her into contact with European culture had its influence on Spanish intellectual life, which in a small way reached the popular classes through a philanthropic movement. This was manifested mostly after the middle of the century. During the first half of the century education continued much as before and elementary education was controlled

by the Fraternity of Saint Casiano. But with the ascent of Charles III to the throne, a general interest in secular education was manifested. The two European educators who had most influence over Spain at this time were Rousseau in the first part of the century and Pestalozzi in the latter part. The nobility, the crown, societies of ladies, economic societies and religious orders established schools. Some educational treatises were written and there was a general tendency to secularize education, but without success, as the teaching of religion continued to be the basis of elementary education.

El Colegio Académico del Noble Arte de Primeras Letras. In 1780, by order of Charles III, the Fraternity of San Casiano was superseded by El Colegio Académico del Noble Arte de Primeras Letras. This new society also maintained the fraternity organization, spirit and discipline. Its members were first the teachers of the elementary schools of Madrid, but they aimed to have the same national jurisdiction which the fraternity of Saint Casiano had enjoyed, a fact which is well expressed by the following aim:—"To encourage in all the kingdom the right kind of education for the youth, based on the fundamentals of the Catholic faith, in the exercise of virtue and in the noble art of reading, writing and ciphering."²³ This society controlled elementary education for about ten years.

Interest in Popular Education. Coöperating with the Colegio Académico del Noble Arte de Primeras Letras, the King issued an order on July 12, 1781, that all parents able to pay for the education of their children should send them to school, have them taught to read and write and also give them a trade. Poor children were placed in charge of public authorities who were ordered to teach them reading, writing, ciphering, and also a trade. This is the first sign of any sort of compulsory education in Spain.²⁴ The poor were expected to go to the schools maintained by the Church and in Madrid to eight "escuelas reales" founded and maintained by the crown.²⁵ It was also reported at this time that the first official move was made to provide schools for girls. On May 11, 1783, Charles III issued an order establishing thirty-two schools for girls, to be taught by women who had to pass an examination in catechism, needle-work and reading. Each teacher was to receive about fifty pesos a year. The curriculum comprised catechism, good manners and hand work,

²³Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, pp. 135-217.

²⁴*Ibid.*

²⁵Cossio, Manual B.: *La Enseñanza Primaria en España*, p. 21.

chiefly needle-work, while reading was taught only to those who requested it.²⁶

La Academia de Primera Educación. While the Colegio Académico was exercising official powers in education, another society was formed called La Academia de Primera Educación. This was recognized by Charles IV in 1791 and took the place of the Colegio Académico.²⁷ Schools unofficially established continued their activities, the influence of European political and educational movements began to be felt more and more in Spain.

Educational Activities at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century. Educational reforms in Europe, and more especially in France, had an immediate influence over Spain. The end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth century are marked by a movement to centralize the system of education and make it a government function. The Academia de Primera Educación lost its privileges and the government took over the administration of education.²⁸ Many efforts were put forth to improve the system of education according to a law drawn up for the purpose. In 1804 an examining board was established to confer certificates of qualification on teachers.²⁹ An attempt was made in 1806 to prepare teachers when the government founded a school in Madrid which was to be conducted according to Pestalozzian principles. This was put in charge of Swiss masters and successfully conducted for two years, special attention being given to the preparation of teachers. Unfortunately, it was suppressed on January 13, 1808, as a result of Napoleon's invasion.³⁰

The Eighteenth Century in Porto Rico. Porto Rico did not cease to be an object of attack by the enemies of Spain and during the eighteenth century it was attacked nine times by the English and once by the Dutch. The most nearly successful attempt to wrest Porto Rico from Spain was in 1797, when a British squadron of sixty vessels and a detachment of 6,500 men attacked San Juan. They effected a landing and for two weeks held the city under fire, but at last they were forced to withdraw. Besides these wars, one cyclone in 1785, an earthquake in 1787 and many epidemics due to poor sanitary conditions added to the misery and to the difficulty of the problems

²⁶Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 221.

²⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 242, 247. Cossio, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

²⁸*Ibid.*, Vol. II, pp. 5-7.

²⁹*Ibid.*, Vol. II, pp. 5-7. Cossio, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

³⁰*Ibid.*, Vol. II, pp. 79. Cossio, *op. cit.*, p. 25. 56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 111.

to be solved. In spite of all this, attempts were made to improve conditions in the Island, especially after the ascent of Charles III.

Report of Field Marshal Alejandro O'Reilly. The reforms of Charles III were to be extended to the possessions in America. Consequently, in 1765, the King sent Field Marshal Alejandro O'Reilly to Porto Rico to investigate the conditions of the Island and to make a report. O'Reilly found twenty villages besides San Juan and San German, with a population of 44,883 inhabitants, of which 5,000 were slaves. He reorganized the military forces and urged the strengthening of the fortifications. Convict labor was imported and large amounts of money were spent chiefly for military purposes. After this report was made a new military and colonial administration was inaugurated, several villages were given municipal councils, currency was reformed, a custom house was established in San Juan, postal service was instituted, economic conditions were improved, and, through the encouragement of immigration, the population increased.

Educational Conditions. Education continued to be a function of the Church, but the philanthropic interest evidenced in the mother country was manifested in the Island during the latter part of the century. O'Reilly in his report pictures the backward cultural estate of the people thus:

In order to understand how the people have lived and are living, it is well to know that there are only two schools for boys in the whole Island, that outside of Porto Rico (the present city of San Juan) and the village of San German, very few know how to read. They keep account of time by the terms of the Governors, hurricanes, visits of the Bishop to the towns, arrivals of or bombardments of the Island by foreign ships. They measure the length of a journey according to the time it takes them to walk the distance. The wealthiest men in the country go barefooted.³¹

Objections to O'Reilly's Report. Don José Julian Acosta was inclined to believe that this criticism of cultural conditions of the Island in 1765 was too severe. Dr. C. Coll y Toste also makes the same objection. He furthermore quotes extensively from a document of 1770 wherein were found some instructions regarding the establishment of schools. These were orders given by the Governor to the military officers of the different districts. Don Miguel de Muelas, the Governor, ordered his subordinates that in each district a person of good repute should be engaged in teaching the children. Parents were to send at least half of their children to school until they knew how to read and write. A collection was to be taken among the

³¹Tapia y Rivera, *op. cit.*, p. 156. 56th Congress, S. D. 363, p. 109.

parents to pay the salary of the teacher. The curriculum was to consist of catechism, reading, writing and ciphering. The district officers were compelled to canvass their territory and see that parents obeyed the law.³² This is the influence of the educational movement that was active in Spain and in fact in all of Europe, but there is no evidence that the orders were ever carried out. The fact that such instructions were given to the district officers does not prove that the schools existed and that education was compulsory, any more than the school law of 1857 in Spain proves that she has had since then a thoroughly organized compulsory system of education, providing an opportunity for every child to receive an elementary education. Spanish school laws are masterpieces on paper, but there has not been one Spanish school law which was ever fully executed.

University Movement. About the year 1770 there was a movement to establish a university in San Juan. Colonel Don Miguel de Muesas, then Governor General, proposed to His Majesty, Charles III, the establishment of such a university in the buildings occupied by the Dominican monastery. Although it may seem strange to found a university when there were no public schools, yet the universities have preceded the public schools in all the countries of the world. The first schools of the new world were the universities of Santo Domingo, founded in 1538, and of San Marcos, in Lima, founded in 1550. As there was no university in Porto Rico, the youth had to go to foreign countries to pursue their university studies. Generally they went to Venezuela, Santo Domingo and Spain.³³ The university did not materialize and the students continued to go abroad for their higher education. Alexander Humboldt, the German scientist, mentions the fact that in his travels in South America he met at the University of Caracas two Porto Ricans who distinguished themselves in the science of botany. He made this trip between the years 1799 and 1804, travelling through the West Indies, Venezuela, Colombia and Peru.³⁴ Meanwhile the Dominican monastery was the highest center of learning in the Island and when the university movement failed, this school extended its curriculum as best it could. In 1790, at the beginning of the disturbances in Santo Domingo and Haiti, an attempt was made to have the University of Santo Domingo

³²Coll y Toste, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-16.

³³Tomás de Córdoba, Pedro: *Memoria sobre todos los Ramos de Administración de la Isla de Puerto Rico*, p. 320.

³⁴Iñigo Abad: *Historia Geográfica, Civil y Natural de la Isla de Puerto Rico*, nueva edición anotada por José Julian Acosta, p. 410.

transferred to San Juan, but without success. Other attempts to establish secondary schools at this time failed. Later, in 1816, a chair of anatomy was established in the hospital at San Juan, and in 1819 the Franciscan friars founded a chair of theology in their convent.³⁵

Education for Girls at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century. On November 25, 1799, at a meeting of the city council in San Juan, one of the matters considered was the necessity of establishing an "equal number of schools for girls," one in each of the four squares of the city.³⁶ It is natural to suppose that there existed four schools for boys. One of the members of the council, Don Antonio de Córdoba, was asked to look for four teachers who were morally and intellectually qualified to fill the positions of teachers in these schools. On December 2, of the same year, at another meeting of the council, Señor de Córdoba reported that he had interviewed Paula Molinero, Juana Polanco, Josefa Echevarria and Maria Dolores Aranjó, ladies who in his opinion were qualified to take care of the education of the girls in the four squares of the city. Two weeks later, on December 16, the council had another meeting at which the Governor General, Don Ramón de Castro, was present. The matter of the girls' schools was again brought up. The secretary was authorized to draw up plans for the schools, to make contracts with the teachers, and to send the same to the Governor General for approval. The schools were evidently started and at least three teachers employed, for on March 1, 1804, the teachers applied to the council for their back salaries which had not been paid. On that date Juana Antonia Aranjó, Josefa Echevarria, and Juana Polanco, teachers of primary instruction, as they were officially called, sent a communication to the city council calling the attention of that body to the fact that said body had been satisfied with their efforts to teach the catechism and sewing, but that they had been denied their salaries of fifty pesos a year, which sum had been named as remuneration for their work. They asked the city council to order its secretary to pay the arrears in salary. This was not done, for on December 6 of the same year, the teachers again brought the matter to the attention of the council. This time it was either neglected or an unsatisfactory reply was sent to the teachers, for six days after, on December 12, they asked to be allowed to examine the minutes of the council meeting, at which

³⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 111.

³⁶Angelis: *Miscelíneas Puerto Riqueñas*, p. 137.

they were appointed, that they might see for themselves just what action that body had taken and under what terms they had originally been employed.³⁷ The activity of the Church and the private school teachers continued, but nothing had been achieved thus far for popular support of education. The influence of the contemporary Spanish movement did not have any practical effects on the Island.

Napoleonic Invasion and Spanish Resistance. In July, 1808, under the protection of French troops, Joseph Bonaparte took possession of the Spanish government. Although the Spanish people hated the late King, Charles IV, and his Prime Minister Godoy, they were fond of his son Ferdinand, and preferred him for king rather than Napoleon's brother, a foreigner and intruder. It was very easy for Napoleon to put his brother on the Spanish throne but very hard to keep him there. Priests and nobles made common cause with commoners and peasants in a terrific endeavor to drive out the foreigners. A bitter struggle ensued between the French government and the Spaniards who organized in "juntas" or revolutionary committees to rule in the name of Ferdinand. Aided by Great Britain, the Spaniards carried on the peninsular war until Napoleon's troops finally withdrew in 1814.

The Cortes of Cádiz and Educational Reform. During the French occupation, Spain was ruled by a Central Committee which met in Cádiz, and swore allegiance to Ferdinand as the rightful heir to the Spanish throne. In 1812 the Central Committee drew up a Constitution for the nation. This document was influenced by the American constitution, by the documents drawn up during the French Revolution and by the contemporary events in Europe. It was based upon very liberal principles and was more radical than either the American or the French constitution. Article XII of the constitution regarding public instruction provided for the establishment of elementary schools in all cities and villages. The curriculum to be taught was reading, writing, arithmetic and catechism. The plan was made uniform for all the nation. It also provided that higher education should be maintained according to the needs of the population, but the emphasis was placed on elementary education.³⁸ Education was recognized as a state function.

Porto Rico during the Napoleonic Invasion. No sooner had the

³⁷Angelis, *op. cit.*, pp. 18-20.

³⁸Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Constitution of March 8, 1812. Vol. II, pp. 82-85.
Monroe: *Encyclopedia of Education*. See Spain.

news of the Napoleonic invasion reached America than the Spanish colonies began to organize plans to govern themselves. They did not intend at first to break away from the mother country, for they all held allegiance to the Prince of Asturias, but they were unwilling to submit themselves to the French régime. They established regional governments and sent representatives to the Central Committee in Spain. Porto Rico also declared its allegiance to the Prince, but in case he were not restored the Island reserved the right to govern itself as it pleased. In 1809 Porto Rico was allowed one representative in the Cortes, and Ramón Powers was selected for the position. The Island began to prosper economically and in 1811 the administration of public funds was reorganized. In 1813 Porto Rico's first insular government, the Provincial Deputation, met. The same year the "Sociedad Económica de los Amigos del Pais," the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country, was founded in San Juan by the sub-treasurer³⁹ Don Alejandro Ramirez. Many similar societies were founded in the Spanish colonies at this time. One of the principal aims was to foster public education.

The Insular Government Intervenes in Elementary Education. The first sign of governmental intervention in education in Porto Rico occurs at this time when the colonies were left to govern themselves. On July 22, 1809, Governor Salvador Meléndez ordered the municipality of San Juan to appoint an inspector of the elementary schools.⁴⁰ The following year he ordered that there should be distributed to the schools writing copy books, primers, a book of moral readings, catechisms and paper, and further, that there should be held in all of the schools annual examinations.⁴¹ This intervention seems to imply that there were, by 1810, schools supported by public funds or private schools aided by public funds. The fact that annual examinations were officially ordered by the Governor General shows that the schools had something of a public character.

The Restoration in Spain. While Ferdinand was in exile he was trying constantly to regain his throne. All sorts of intrigues were being carried on against the liberal government and the Constitution of 1812. At last in 1814 he was restored to the Spanish throne, his restoration being only one event in the general political reaction in Europe and corresponding to the month with the restora-

³⁹Intendente.

⁴⁰Ferrer Hernandez, Gabriel: *La Instrucción Pública en Puerto Rico*, p. 21.

⁴¹*Ibid.* 56th Cong. S. D. 363, pp. 117-18.

tion of another Bourbon to the French throne. The restoration government was a continuation of the traditions of Charles IV, only more despotic. Ferdinand apparently had learned nothing in his years of exile and came back a greater despot than ever. On May 11 he decreed the dissolution of the Cortes, thus annulling the Constitution of 1812 with all the reforms of the native government. He persecuted the liberals, many of whom had to leave the country, established the Inquisition, and placed the country in a worse state of political reaction than that existing in the seventeenth century and the beginning of the eighteenth.

The Restoration and Education. As it was to be expected, the King's activities in education were extremely reactionary. The Jesuits were readmitted, convents were opened and multiplied, the universities and theatres were closed, the publication of all newspapers, other than the official gazette, was prohibited, and material progress in general was checked. Elementary education was placed in the hands of the Church and while a multitude of royal decrees and orders concerning education were issued, they amounted to nothing, for the country was bankrupt and political chaos reigned.⁴²

Political Situation in Porto Rico. In Porto Rico the political situation followed that of Spain. On receiving news of the restoration Governor General Meléndez celebrated the occasion with music, fireworks, and a Te Deum in honor of the absolute King. The Provincial Deputation was dissolved and the old order was re-established. In spite of this general reaction, due to immigration from the other Spanish colonies and the opening of commercial relations with foreign countries, the Island enjoyed some economic prosperity.

Educational Conditions in Porto Rico at the Time of the Restoration. The Economic Society, one of the chief aims of which was the promotion of education, was not able to accomplish anything before 1820 and held only two meetings before that date.⁴³ Royal decrees and orders regarding education in Porto Rico were issued at this time, but they had even less chance of being put into operation than those applicable to Spain. In 1815 there was a royal order which bore directly on education in the Indies. In June of that year an order was issued referring to another of November 5, 1782.⁴⁴ The later one urges that the earlier one be put into operation, that efforts be

⁴²Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, pp. 115-70.

⁴³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 112. Brau, *op. cit.*, pp. 224-25.

⁴⁴Zamorra y Coronado, José Maria: *Biblioteca de Legislación* p. 174.

put forth to establish the schools provided by law, that proper action be taken to make education compulsory and that legal means be provided to compel parents to send their children to school. The schools were to be supported by the communities and care was to be taken in the selection of teachers that they were well qualified. The clergy were advised to do all in their power to aid education and to take special care that the children learned well the Spanish language. In towns where there were no schools the people were to invite the priest to take charge of the education of the youth. This later order merely showed that the first had never been obeyed and there is no evidence that the later one was ever put into operation.

There is another order which throws some light on the state of education in 1815. On May 4 the viceroys, presidents and governors in the colonies were ordered to visit the establishments of education and the hospitals in order to make suitable reforms. The Governor General communicated the order to the cathedral chapter at San Juan and to the city council. These were to name a representative to accompany him in his visit of inspection. He said that they would proceed to make the visit, "beginning with the class studying in the convent of Santo Domingo, sending first an official letter to the prior as well as to the other prelates and persons belonging to the schools and hospitals, and that the same kind of a visit should be made in the village of San German, where there were schools and hospitals."⁴⁵ If San German was the only other town besides San Juan that required inspection, it is logical to suppose that in the rest of the Island instruction was limited to the teaching of the catechism, reading, writing, and ciphering given either by the priest or by private individuals who taught those who could afford to pay. Public interest in public education did not begin in the Island until 1820.

Testimony of José Julian Acosta on the Beginnings of Education in Porto Rico. A general review of the educational efforts in Porto Rico up to 1820 was given by Don José Julian Acosta in his address at the inauguration of the Civil Institute of Secondary Education in 1882. In that address he said: "Since the first dawning of Porto Rican life, and in diverse and repeated epochs, let it be said in honor of our ancestors that there have lived in this Island men of noble and generous spirit who promoted the improvement of public instruction. As a proof to this statement there are in the sixteenth century the venerable names of Anton Lucas and Francisco Ruiz,

⁴⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 111.

founders of the study of Latin. In the seventeenth century the name of Friar Jorge Chambers, who founded the chairs of grammar and philosophy in the monastery of the Dominican friars; and in the eighteenth century the names of Doctors Acosta and Ruiz, who tried to establish chairs of jurisprudence, and of Xiorro, Pizarro, Dávila, Córdova and Quiñones, who in the name of the ayuntamiento of this capital petitioned the monarch to remove to this city the Pontifical University of Santo Domingo."⁴⁶ We may or may not agree with Dr. Acosta in his evaluation of education during the first three centuries of the Island as a Spanish colony, but from this quotation we get a glimpse of the spirit of those who in the first years of the life of the Island had a vision for the future and who in their poor and limited way made their contribution to educational progress.

Summary. By way of summary, it can be said that educational activity in Porto Rico before 1820 was an imitation of Spain and that the fortunes of the mother country affected the fortunes of the Island. As in the mother country, whatever legislation there was concerning education was seldom carried out. There was very little interest in public education in spite of the statements made by Dr. Acosta and others. With few exceptions education was confined to the wealthy classes who could pay a private teacher, or send their children to the church schools where also they had to pay. Education was a function of the church as it was in Spain and those who taught in private schools generally followed the curriculum of the church and taught catechism, reading, writing and ciphering. Secondary and theological education was furnished by the monasteries. The movement for the establishment of the university was never successful and those wishing a higher or professional education, with the exception of the priesthood, had to pursue their studies abroad.

⁴⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 109.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION UNDER THE CONTROL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIETIES [1820-1865]

A. SPANISH HISTORICAL AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

Education in Porto Rico as an insular movement begins in reality in 1820 under the influence of the Liberal régime in Spain. But the Island as a colony shared the political disturbances of the mother country and likewise the changing educational policies. Nevertheless, the conception of education as a public function of the State grew slowly until 1865 when it was thus recognized. Much of the educational effort was manifested in what might be called secondary and professional education, the demand for this coming from the wealthier classes, while popular education was more neglected. For the sake of clearness, elementary and secondary and professional education will be treated in different chapters. The efforts put forth to establish elementary public schools may be subdivided into five periods, according as schools were administered, or according to royal decrees concerning education.

First, education under the divided administration of the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country, and the Provincial Deputation to 1850; second, education under the supervision of "La Academia Real de Bellas Letras" (Royal Academy of Belles Lettres), covering a space of fifteen years, to 1865; third, education under the "Decreto Organico del 10 de Junio de 1865" (Organic Decree of June 10, 1865), nine years to 1874; fourth, education as affected by the Reforms of General Sanz, six years, to 1880; and, fifth, education under "El Decreto Orgánico de 1880" (Organic Decree of 1880), eighteen years, to 1898.

The Reign of Ferdinand VII: The Liberals and the Conservatives. During the six years of French dominion, the people had united in opposition to the invaders. The influence of the French Revolution, the government under the Constitution of 1812 and six years of ex-

perience in self-government had formed a nucleus of men the activities of whom no amount of reactionary policies could check. This group of irreconcilables formed the beginning of the so-called Liberals. On the other hand, the nobility, the clergy, other privileged classes and the lower peasantry whom these controlled, sided with the King and formed an opposing group, extremely reactionary, called the Conservatives. The political history of Spain during most of the nineteenth century is a constant struggle between the Conservatives on one side and the Liberals on the other.

The Liberals Rise to Power in 1820. The reactionary régime instituted in 1814, apparently successful at first, united the Liberals in a secret propaganda against the Throne, and at the same time they spread the teachings of the French Revolution among all their members. One of their chief objectives was to overthrow the King, or at least to force upon him the Constitution of 1812. In order to accomplish this end they spread dissatisfaction in the army which the King was assembling for the subjugation of the Spanish American colonies. In 1819 a mutiny of the army was the signal for a general insurrection which in the first two months of 1820 broke out in different parts of the nation. The Revolution was successful and in March 1820, the King gave his royal oath to support the Constitution of 1812. The insurgents took him at his word and laid down their arms.

The Introduction of the Monitorial System in Spain. Even before the success of the Liberals in 1820 the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster had already become popular in Europe and was being introduced in America. In 1819 it was officially introduced in Spain. By royal order of March 30, there was established in Madrid a central school to be conducted according to Lancasterian methods. This institution was to serve as a model school to others to be established in different parts of the nation, which were to be administered by the officers of the central school in Madrid. A board composed of members of the nobility was placed in charge of the administration of all the Lancasterian schools.¹ Later in the year, October 6, another royal order was issued authorizing all towns, corporations or individuals who so desired to open Lancasterian schools provided they were all under the inspection and supervision of the board already appointed for the purpose. This board besides supervising instruction was to

¹Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, pp. 148-50.

examine all teachers.² The introduction of this system into Spain was not due to the desire of the King to educate his subjects, but to the popularity of the monitorial system at this time among the Liberals themselves.

Educational Programme of the Liberal Régime of 1820. The interest in popular education awakened by the monitorial system made a fitting background for the educational reforms introduced by the Liberals in 1821. The Cortes attempted to reorganize the system of education from the elementary school to the University. All educational institutions supported wholly or in part or authorized by the government were declared to be free and uniform.

It was ordered that schools should be established in all villages of one hundred inhabitants or over and that in towns and cities of five hundred inhabitants or over there should be a school for every five hundred. Schools for girls were also to be established. A central Educational Board of seven members was to have full administration of all public education.³ The Liberal government also provided for special schools for soldiers to be conducted according to the methods of Bell and Lancaster.⁴

Restoration and Absolutism. The reforms of the Liberals were not to last long, for there were many forces both at home and abroad working against the success of the Liberal régime. At home the King was constantly at work trying to recover his absolute power. He was supported by the clergy and the nobles who resisted the execution of reform legislation. Abroad, reactionary powers of Europe saw in the Spanish revolt of 1820 and in the reforms of the Liberals, the beginning of a revolution, and were terrified by the thought of what the success of such a movement might mean to the whole Continent. Consequently reactionary Europe began to look for an opportunity to intervene in the internal affairs of Spain.

This was realized in 1823, when the governments of France, Austria, Russia and Prussia demanded the abolition of the Constitution of 1812 and the liberation of the King from the restraint that had been imposed upon him on the ground that the anarchical condition of the country justified such a demand. On the refusal of the Spanish Liberals a French army crossed the Pyrenees and enforced the demand of the powers. Absolutism was restored in 1824 and the reaction which

²*Ibid.*, Real Orden de 6 de Octubre de 1819, pp. 165-67.

³*Ibid.*, Reglamento General de Instrucción Publica de 29, Junio 1821, pp. 172-81.

⁴*Ibid.*, Decreto del 28 de Junio, 1821, pp. 172.

followed was more extreme than had been that of ten years before. Until his death in 1833, Ferdinand ruled Spain as an irresponsible despot.

Education in Spain Under the Reaction. Under such conditions progress in education, and in fact progress of any kind, was not to be expected. Soon after the rise of the Conservatives in 1824, a royal order of the 25th of March renewed the decree of November 13, 1815, asking the Bishops of the churches to establish primary schools in the convents of their respective dioceses.⁵ This was done to check the influence of the liberal government, as its teachings were considered very pernicious. On June 23 of the same year the General Committee of Charities in Madrid was authorized to examine and certify the primary school teachers.⁶ The King and the Church were allied to check the teachings of the liberals and the best way to do that was to give the church ample powers in education.

A step forward was made the next year. The first school law, fully organizing elementary education, was passed February 16, 1825.⁷ By the following list of contents we can get an idea of the fullness of the law:

The Law of 1825.

1. Schools and Their Definition.
2. Equipment and Text Books.
3. Admission of Children. Days and Hours of Classes.
4. Methods of Teaching.
5. Examination of Public and Private Pupils.
6. Rewards and Punishments.
7. Teachers' Examinations and Certificates.
8. Assistant Teachers and Pupil Teachers.
9. Boarding Schools.
10. Normal Schools.
11. Government and Administration of the Schools.
12. Superior Board of Education.
13. District Boards of Education.
14. Municipal Boards of Education.
15. Educational Finances.
16. Teachers' Pensions, Promotions and Exemptions.
17. Police and Religious Practice to be Observed in the Schools.
18. Schools for Girls.
19. Rules for the Execution of the Law.⁸

This law was noted for its completeness. It attempted to organize elementary education, which was not made compulsory nor free.

⁵Luzuriaga, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 185.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 187.

⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 188-230.

⁸*Ibid.*

Schools were divided into three classes: first, those of Madrid and capitals of Provinces; second, those established in the districts of Madrid and districts of provincial capitals; and third, those of towns under five hundred inhabitants. Teachers were required to take examinations and have certificates before they could teach. Provision was made for teachers' pensions. On the other hand, the law was reactionary. All teachers were compelled to make a profession of faith before they were granted their certificates. It is needless to say that this was an excellent document, but its provisions were never put into operation in Spain much less in Porto Rico.

Independence of the Spanish Colonies in America. The restoration of Ferdinand in 1814, followed by his reactionary policies, widened the breach between Spain and her colonies. At first the colonies did not intend to separate from the mother country, but after the restoration they saw that there was no hope of securing any liberties under the monarchy, hence they declared themselves in open revolt and set out to win their independence. Instead of adopting a conciliatory attitude toward the colonies, redressing their grievances and bringing them once more within the bond of the Empire, Ferdinand cruelly endeavored to subjugate them by force of arms. As a result all the Spanish colonies on the American continent took up arms against the mother country. One by one they won their independence and in 1826 the Spanish flag came down forever on the mainland of the American Continent.

Political Conditions in Porto Rico. The political changes in 1820 and 1823 were made in Porto Rico without any major disturbances. Now and then the Porto Ricans manifested signs of opposition to the insular authorities and expressed sympathy for the colonies in their struggle for independence, but the prompt measures of the Governor, the presence of troops and the small area of the Island prevented a successful uprising. Porto Rico benefited by the disturbance in the other colonies in that many Spaniards having to emigrate from the Continent found a refuge in the Island, where they established themselves and thus contributed to her material welfare.

B. DIVIDED ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE ECONOMIC SOCIETY
OF THE FRIENDS OF THE COUNTRY AND THE PROVINCIAL
DEPUTATION [1820-1851]

Attempt to Introduce the Monitorial System into Porto Rico. The

establishment of Lancasterian schools in Spain and the educational policies of the Liberals had an immediate effect in Porto Rico. With the re-establishment of the Constitution of 1812, the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country came into its own and began its activities in education. Its first attempt was to establish a school for the preparation of teachers in San Juan. In the record of the session held by the Economic Society on the 17th of August, 1820, is related the following:

It was agreed to open a voluntary annual subscription among the ayuntamientos, fathers of families and persons who interest themselves in public instruction, for the purpose of establishing in the capital a normal school of mutual instruction, bringing a professor from Europe or Havana to prepare teachers, who shall afterwards practice their profession in the different towns of the Island.⁹

On August 29, 1820, Brigadier General Don Juan Vasco y Pascual, the Governor General, sent a communication to the San Juan city council, informing that body that the Provincial Deputation had passed a provision to open a subscription for the purpose of collecting funds to establish a school of mutual instruction after the method of Lancaster. He headed the list with thirty-two pesos.

The council welcomed the suggestion of the Governor and appointed Don Francisco Tadeo de Rivera and Don Ramón Salgado to collect the money and report the result to the Governor.¹⁰ Being more or less deceived by the reports received from Madrid concerning the Lancasterian school there, the people took up the project with much enthusiasm. The subscription list soon rose to 1223.25 pesos. The Economic Society was commissioned to contract for a teacher. The Society wrote to Madrid and sent a draft for 500 pesos with the request that a teacher specially trained to teach according to the Lancasterian method be secured.

On the receipt of the draft in Madrid, it was protested on account of the failure of the house on which it was drawn. This money was lost. The money remaining in the treasury of the Economic Society was turned over to the city council and used for municipal expenses.¹¹ Thus ended the first efforts to establish a school to prepare teachers for the schools of the Island.

⁹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 112.

¹⁰Don Juan Macho Moreno: *Compilación Legislativa de Primera Enseñanza de la Isla de Puerto Rico*, pp. 15-16. In this work are compiled all the documents relating to elementary education in Porto Rico from 1820 to 1895. As we shall refer to this work often, we shall do so, by giving the name of the author, followed by the name of the document, and the page.

¹¹Moreno: *Escuela Lancasteriana*, pp. 15-16.

Plan of Tadeo de Rivera. In the meantime the city council studied ways and means of establishing elementary schools. At this time two elementary schools existed in the capital.¹² Don Francisco Tadeo de Rivera, a school officer of the city of San Juan (Regidor Diputado de Escuelas), was asked to work out a plan for the establishment of the schools. One month after, September 20, he submitted his "Methodical Instruction upon What Primary School Teachers Ought to Observe in the Teaching of Children." (*Instrucción Metódica sobre lo que deben observar los maestros de primeras letras para la educación y enseñanza de los niños.*)¹³ This document is of the greatest importance, not only because it is the first of its class found in the history of Porto Rico, but also because the author introduced some of the principles of the Lancasterian school, together with the most important precepts of the plan of studies which the Liberals were trying to establish in Spain.

It began by stating that education should be free; the school hours six, divided into two sessions, from 8.30 A.M. to 12 M. and from 2.30 to 5 P.M.; the school year to consist of twelve months, except Sundays, legal holidays, three days at Christmas and Easter Week. The age for entering school should be six years and the course of study should last four years. The curriculum should include the elementary study of religion, morals, reading, writing, grammar, orthography, arithmetic, politics, manners and the study of the constitution. It ordered that there should be a general, public examination each year; definitely prohibited corporal punishment; and recommended the employment of assistants in the direction of the school, who should be selected by the teachers from among the best scholars. If they were taken from the outside they should be examined and approved by the city council. One member of the city council was sent to act as inspector, visit the schools once or twice a month, and observe the progress of the children. Suggestions to parents were included in the plan.¹⁴

The Fate of the Plan. Unfortunately this was another plan, excellent on paper, but which was never realized. It was submitted to the city council September 10, 1820. The city council referred it

¹²56th Cong. S. D. 303, p. 112.

¹³Moreno: p. 16.

¹⁴Moreno: *Instrucción Metódica sobre lo que deben observar los maestros de primeras letras para la educación y enseñanza de los niños*, por Don Francisco Tadeo de Rivera. Regidor Diputado de las Escuelas del Excmo. Ayuntamiento de la Capital de Puerto Rico. pp. 16-30.

to the Governor, September 25, 1820,¹⁵ who in turn submitted it to the Provincial Deputation on the 29th of the month.¹⁶ The Deputation approved the plan and recommended its execution until something better was provided by the Spanish Cortes. The project was printed and distributed to all teachers in the Island. Officers were appointed and examining committees selected, but the whole movement failed and the plan was never put into operation.¹⁷

Early Activities of the Economic Society in Elementary Education. The Economic Society, although more interested in secondary education, did not entirely neglect elementary education. In 1820, soon after the failure of the plan already considered, the Society tried to establish a school for girls in San Juan, and engaged a teacher by the name of Vicenta Ehrichson.¹⁸ No record was found of the school until four months afterwards when the directress of the school petitioned the Society to pay four months of house rent. She had been ill and not able to open the school. The society voted to pay one-third of the rent.¹⁹ On October 3, 1821, the Society tried to engage a man by the name of Ritten Noven, a teacher of writing, to teach his method to the elementary school teachers that these might teach it in the Island.²⁰ Nothing is known of the fate of these two movements.

In the investigations of the United States government at the time of the American occupation, the investigator has the following to say in reference to these attempts on the part of the Society:

The want of resources often prevented it (The Economic Society) from putting good ideas into practice. The instruction of girls was something that engaged its attention from the first. As far back as the year 1820 the Society tried to make arrangements with a Spanish woman who was directing a school for girls in St. Thomas to establish herself in the capital. The Society further tried to engage another teacher, who, like the first, knew French and English, and was living in Santa Cruz; but in the end it was compelled to abandon the idea, owing to lack of funds to sustain the school.²¹

Until 1828 the Economic Society was subsidized by the government with one thousand pesos annually and after that with one thousand six hundred pesos. This was not a sufficient fund to carry

¹⁵Moreno: Oficio,—Sala Consistorial de Puerto Rico, p. 30.

¹⁶*Ibid.*, p. 30.

¹⁷*Ibid.*, Acuerdos de la Excm. Diputación Provincial, pp. 31–32.

¹⁸Libro 1. Minutes of the Economic Society. Coll y Toste, *Historia de la Instrucción Pública en Porto Rico*, p. 20.

¹⁹*Ibid.*, p. 20.

²⁰*Ibid.*, p. 21.

²¹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 117.

out any educational programme, nevertheless it was spent in secondary education mostly.²² In 1845 the Society paid the expenses of six girls in a private school in San Juan, and when this was closed they were transferred to another private school.²³

Educational Conditions in 1824. The next record wherein indirect information about education in the Island may be found is of the year 1824. In a study of the occupations in the Island, both civil and military, no school teachers appear in the list, while the doctors, merchants and artisans of all kinds are mentioned.²⁴ This does not prove that there were no teachers, but shows the lack of interest in education by not including the teachers in the list of professions.

Educational Attempts in 1828. The attempts made in 1828 to establish schools in the Island throw some light on the educational conditions at that time:

About the middle of the year 1828 there arrived in Porto Rico the royal order of February 24, in which the Supreme Government asked what means should be proposed for establishing colleges in the Island. It then contained 302,692 inhabitants, and there were in the capital, according to one of the records of the Economic Society, only 'two or three schools, and they did not give any satisfactory results.' This reason, added to the lack of resources for sustaining a college, was the cause of abandoning the project.²⁵

The uncertainty of the information as to the number of schools "two or more" should be noted.

Conditions in Elementary Education in 1830. The year 1830 furnishes some official information regarding the state of education in the entire Island. At that time the following school statistics were sent to the Crown. There were 29 schools in the Island, distributed as follows: San Juan, 5; Bayamón, 5; Arecibo, 2; Aguada, 6; San German, 3; Ponce, 2; Humacao, 3; Caguas, 3; total, 29.²⁶ The salaries of the teachers were partly paid by the city councils.²⁷

²²56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 117.

²³*Ibid.*

²⁴de Córdoba, Pedro Tomás: *Memoria sobre todos los Ramos de Administración de la Isla de Puerto Rico* [por el Coronel de Infantería, Don Pedro Tomás de Córdoba, Secretario Honorario de S. M. y propietario del gobierno y capitanía general de la misma Isla]. This report was published in Madrid, (Imprenta de Yenes,) in 1838. On pages 284 and 285 we find a list of the professions in Porto Rico in 1824 as follows: 34 doctors and surgeons; 45 pharmacists; 733 merchants; 3170 artisans. Another list gives the military officials.

²⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 113.

²⁶de Córdoba, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-26. The summary of the report gives the following statistics: 1 ciudad, 4 villas, 53 pueblos, 5 ayuntamientos, 6 tenientes de justicias mayores, 57 tenientes de guerra, 57 sargentos mayores, 29 escuelas de primeras letras, 53 médicos, 44 practicantes de medicina, 18 agrimensores, 7 intérpretes, 19 escribanos.

²⁷de Córdoba, *op. cit.*, p. 55. Los ayuntamientos disfrutaban de algunos propios y

The Work of the Count of Carpegna. About the year 1830 there came to Porto Rico Lieutenant Colonel of Infantry Don Ramón Carpegna, Count of Carpegna, who from the beginning took great interest in education. Imitating the monitorial system in Madrid, he wished to establish a school of mutual instruction, the principal object of which was to demonstrate the advantages which might be obtained in instruction by following that system. On April 10, 1833, his school was opened and two years afterwards, in view of the good results obtained, the Economic Society agreed to give the Count an "honorable and solemn testimonial of its appreciation for the great service which he had done to the Island, in putting its youth in a path hitherto unknown to practice."²⁸ About the same time the schools of Aibonito and Patillas were ordered closed by the Governor General because no children attended them. In 1830 the general condition of education was backward and the few schools in operation were badly equipped.²⁹ The Spanish law of 1825 had had no effect on the educational conditions in Porto Rico, as it had very little on Spain herself.

The Reign of Isabella II. In 1829 King Ferdinand married Maria Cristina of Naples and a daughter, Isabella, was born to the sovereigns the following year. The King was in poor health, and feeling the end near, legalized his daughter's right to the throne, abolishing by the pragmatic sanction of March 29, 1830 the Salic Law of the Bourbon family, which excluded the daughters of the King from the throne. This brought upon him the rage of his brother, Don Carlos, and gave rise to the Carlist party. The King died and Maria Cristina, the mother of Queen Isabella, became regent. Don Carlos attracted to his standard the clericals, reactionaries, and the country folk from among the mountains of the north. The regent won the

arbitrios para atender a la policia de comodidad de ornato y salubridad, y los pueblos reparten anualmente lo que necesitan para sus obras y demas gastos fijos de la población. Estos son el salario del párroco, el del sacristan, maestro de primeras letras, gaceta, mantenimiento de presos, luces de cárceles y otros de corta entidad; los demas son eventuales.

²⁸Coll y Toste, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

²⁹de Córdoba, *op. cit.*, pp. 64-65. La Instrucción Primaria se halla muy atrasada en la Isla, tiene pocas escuelas de primeras letras y estas estan mal dotadas; requiere un impulso sólido y constante. El estudio de las leyes civiles y económicas hace tambien notable falta, lo mismo que el de medicina y cirugía tan indispensable en obsequio de la humanidad doliente. La Sociedad Económica que mantiene una clase de matemáticas puras y otra de dibujo debe ser la que dé impulso a la Instrucción Primaria; el prelado y la audiencia a la parte de estudios mayores, y el gobierno y la intendencia, al de cirugía en el hospital militar. S. M. tiene concedido el establecimiento de cátedra de medicina en la isla, y que dos jóvenes se instrullan a expensas del Erario en el Colegio de Médicos Cirujanos de Cádiz. Porqué no se aprovechará este beneficio!"

support of the Liberals by the grant of a parliamentary constitution in 1837. For seven years after the death of the King there was a bitter struggle for the throne, until finally, in 1840, Don Carlos fled and Isabella was recognized as the rightful heir. This, however, did not end the activities of the Carlists.

The young Queen was crowned in 1843 and began her stormy reign. She lost favor with the Liberals by revising the Constitution in a conservative direction and by her constant attempts to rule despotically, while at the same time she failed to win the loyal support of the Conservatives. Her reign was marked by constant political unrest, no one knowing what political changes a day might bring forth. In the meantime the republican doctrines spread among the intellectuals, the middle class and the best element of the country in general.

The Educational Law of 1834. The Liberals persuaded Maria Cristina to begin to reform education and as a result the law of 1834 was passed. As this decree applied directly to Porto Rico, its provisions should be considered somewhat in detail. Three classes of school commissions were created for the administration of the schools: provincial, district³⁰ and town commissions. The provincial commission was composed of the Governor General, one parish priest appointed by the Governor where there were more than one, and three heads of families. The district³¹ commissions were composed of the president of the city council of the district capital, the parish priest and three heads of families. The town commissions were composed of the mayor, another member of the city council, the parish priest and three heads of families chosen by the city council.

All three commissions were expected to supervise and encourage primary schools and furnish the data required by superior authorities. Each had, in addition, its own particular duties. The provincial commission had general charge of elementary education. Its duties were to encourage the establishment of primary schools in accordance with the plan of February 16, 1825, and other royal orders concerning that plan, to furnish the Central Committee on Education in Madrid all information asked for, to execute promptly the orders of the government, and to superintend the work of the commissions of lower rank.

The duties of the district commissions were to put into operation all orders from higher authority, to secure all information desired by

³⁰Comisiones de Partido.

³¹Comisiones de Partido.

higher authorities, to make a study of conditions and needs of the schools in the district and to establish schools in towns where there were none. The duties of the town commissions were mainly to supervise the schools in the towns and study means of supporting schools wherever the municipalities were failing to do so. Teachers' examinations were to be held before a special commission of teachers of both sexes, appointed by the provincial commission.³²

Political and Social Conditions in Porto Rico During the Reign of Isabella II. As in the mother country, the political situation in Porto Rico was stormy. In 1835 a secret attempt was made to establish the Constitution of 1812. This was a sign of what was going on in Madrid at the same time. Governor de la Torre exiled the persons implicated, and the affair came to an end on the Island. However, the change was made in Spain but the corresponding political change was not made in Porto Rico until many years after.

Although no special laws were made for the benefit of Porto Rico until nearly a half century after, yet school legislation began in 1838, with the application of the Spanish Law of 1834 to the Island. Besides the political unrest caused by the same condition in Spain and which gave rise to much political persecution, in 1855, the Island suffered from an epidemic of cholera and smallpox, which caused the death of 30,000 persons. All these events contributed to the slow progress in education. Nevertheless, interest in popular education was manifested and some progress was made.

The Spanish School Law of 1834 Applied to Porto Rico. The royal decree of August 31, 1834, reorganizing the administration of elementary education in Spain, was applied to Porto Rico October 21, 1834. The population of the Island at that time was 358,836 and there were fifty-three towns.³³ On that date the Spanish Minister of Interior, Don José Maria Moreno de Altamira sent a communication to the Governor General of the Island, Miguel de la Torre, informing him that it was the desire of Her Majesty the Queen that the decree of August 31, 1834, with reference to the commissions on primary instruction for the Kingdom should include all parts of her possessions.³⁴

The Law in Practice not Successful. The application of this decree to Porto Rico meant that from 1834 on, the Island should have had

³²Moreno: Ministerio del Interior, Comisiones de Instrucción Primaria, pp. 33-37.

³³Moreno: Decreto Orgánico Vigente, Preámbulo, p. 312; 56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 118.

³⁴Moreno; Comisiones de Instrucción Primaria, p. 33.

its public schools thoroughly organized in accordance with the plan of February 16, 1825, for instruction of Spain, together with the changes made by the decree of 1834. As the new law did very little for Spain, it also did little for Porto Rico, with the exception of stimulating the already existing schools. The interest in education in the Island was beginning to be manifested, but that interest was expressed more in secondary education than in primary education. The commissions provided by the law of 1834 were appointed and ordered to work, but that was about all that was accomplished.

A document of May 10, 1838 throws some light on the effectiveness of the legislation.³⁵ The law of 1834 called for a report on school finances, a school census, and a general report on the state of elementary education. The provincial commission requested the district and town commissions to return the statistical data to the government in San Juan.

Circulars Revealing the Effectiveness of the Law. On December 20, 1838, the provincial commission addressed a circular letter to the subordinate commissions deploring the lack of accuracy and negligence or ignorance of the local committees. With reference to the work of the commissions, the circular says:

The attention of the provincial commission has been specially called to the lack of accuracy and errors present in the data from certain towns. Some have not reported one-eighth part of their population according to the last census. Some have reported, without distinction, men, women, boys and girls who know how to read and write. Some have not distinguished properly between those who know how to read and those who know how to write, so that they report the latter as many times the number of the former, and although the provincial commission has corrected the errors to the best of its ability, it has not been able to report to the superior authorities that the information which it sends them is even approximately reliable and accurate.³⁶

The same circular summarizes the law of 1825 and 1838 and submits a plan to be carried out in the schools. In it the government urges the need of the improvement of primary education and of cooperation and agreement between the authorities and teachers. It urges the town authorities to organize schools according to a good system, make arrangements with the teachers as to the plan of instruction, the length of the school session, and the books to be used in the schools. All poor children who wish to attend school should be admitted free of charge if provided with a permit from the city council, which meant that the town would pay the fee. Tuition

³⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 119.

³⁶*Ibid.*

should be charged to all pupils able to pay. The establishment of rural schools is urged on account of the large rural population.³⁷

Plan of Studies for the Island of Cuba and of Porto Rico. After 1837 Porto Rico and Cuba were supposed to be governed by special laws. The first school law of the two islands was published in Havana, April 24, 1842.³⁸ This called for the organization of elementary, secondary and higher education in the two islands. It was not put into operation in Porto Rico immediately, but the decree of 1865 which will be studied in the next chapter, was based on this law. There are two more documents in this period worth mentioning. One prohibited the use of corporal punishment, which was being used extensively,³⁹ and the other requested the municipalities to provide school supplies for poor children who could not afford to buy them.⁴⁰

The Training of Teachers. In spite of the Laws of 1825, 1834 and other orders regarding the matter in 1838, the government had not yet intervened in the matter of teacher training. A new plan for the examination and certification of teachers was adopted April 17, 1849. The plan says nothing regarding teacher training, providing only for the examination of teachers. Spain herself had done very little for teacher training before 1838, when her laws were applicable to Porto Rico. During this period and before, with the exception of those who came from Spain, the teachers prepared themselves as well as possible under private tutors, in private schools and in the secondary schools and monasteries, the only places where they could study on the Island. The Bishop of Porto Rico granted certificates to teachers of primary education from as early as 1797 to 1849, when the regulations on teacher examinations were published by the provincial commission. There is no record of any certificates issued between 1812 and 1817, and between 1820 and 1823.

It will be recalled that these were periods of intense political unrest in the Peninsula, and of course in all her possessions. As far

³⁷Moreno: Organización de Escuelas. Gobierno Superior Político. Comisión Provincial de Instrucción Primaria. Circular No. 2, December 20, 1838, pp. 39-42.

³⁸Zamorra y Coronado, *op. cit.*, Vol. VI, pp. 116 ff. General Plan of Public Instruction for the Islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, Havana, April 24, 1842.

There is a difference of opinion as to the date of this document—See Moreno, Juan Macho: Gobierno y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico. Negociado Político, Sección 2 p. 62.

³⁹Moreno: Castigos Corporales. Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Aibonito 28 de Mayo de 1845, pp. 42-43.

⁴⁰Moreno: Material de Enseñanza. Capitanía General y Gobierno Superior Político de la Isla de Puerto Rico, 30 de Abril de 1846, p. 43.

as it is known, the Bishop of Porto Rico in fifty-one years granted altogether one hundred and ninety-one certificates. Of these one hundred and seventy were to men teachers in elementary education, ten to women teachers in elementary education, and eleven to secondary school teachers. Nine of the certificates to women teachers were issued between 1840 to 1849, showing the increased interest in the education of girls at that time.⁴¹

Teachers' Examinations. The plan of 1849 provided for an examining board, composed of the provincial commission and two other persons of its own choosing. It met twice a year to examine candidates, namely, in January and in June. All candidates had to apply to the Governor General directly, and accompany the applications by the birth certificate, showing that the candidate was twenty years old; and by a certificate of good moral character and sound political principles from the town council and parish priest. Examinations were generally oral in the following subjects: Religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, school management, and methods.

The candidate appeared before the examining board, drew by chance a certain number of questions from a box, and was requested to answer them orally. Great emphasis was placed on grammar and parsing. Each candidate had to pay a fee of one peso for each member of the examining board, and another of four pesos for the general fund of primary education. Candidates were listed according to their excellence in the examination. The first members in the list were given preference in filling vacancies in the schools.⁴² It is a known fact that under this system there was a great deal of favoritism in the grading and appointments.

Classification of Schools According to Municipalities. The interest in education by the middle of the century was manifested by the order of March 29, 1850, issued by Governor Don Juan de la Pezuela, classifying the elementary schools according to the municipalities and furnishing rules and regulations for the choice of teachers. Schools were classified into three classes. First class were those of San Juan, Mayagüez, Ponce, San German, Guayama, Aguadilla, Arecibo, Humacao, Caguas and Cabo Rojo. Second class were those of Añasco, Bayamón, Fajardo, Juana Diaz, Manatí, Naguabo, Patillas and Yabucoa. The third class were all the rest in the Island. The

⁴¹Coll y Toste, *op. cit.*, 66-78.

⁴²Moreno: Reglamento para Todos los Exámenes de los Profesores de Instrucción Primaria, formado por la Comisión Superior Provincial del Ramo y Aprobado por el Exmo. Sr. Captian General, Jefe Superior Político de esta Isla, pp. 44-47.

ordinance provided for schools in sixty-six municipalities.⁴³ No mention is made of salaries of teachers, but it is well known each pupil paid a fee and the municipality paid for the poor.

Private Elementary Education. The activity of the private schools continued. It is probable that the 1830 Report of Pedro Tomás de Córdova refers only to those schools founded and partly supported by the municipalities, and that it does not include the private schools and the work of the private tutor. The private school-master and the private tutor teaching for a livelihood, existed all this time, both in Porto Rico and in Spain. The private school prepared the children of the wealthy for the secondary schools. The private tutor visited the homes, either to prepare for the secondary schools or simply to teach the elementary school subjects. The daughters of the wealthy generally had a private tutor.

In the third decade of the nineteenth century, educational establishments began to increase. There were several private schools, two of which enjoyed a very good reputation.⁴⁴ Several private schools existed in San Juan at the beginning of the year 1850, four for boys and two for girls, besides four public schools supported by the city council. There were also private schools, although on a smaller scale, in San German, Guayama, Ponce, Aguadilla, Humacao, Mayagüez, Arecibo, Manatí and Caguas.⁴⁵ The private schools and the private tutors contributed much to general culture, especially among the well-to-do. But there were also private school masters, who, like Rafael Cordero, devoted their energies to the education of the poorer and less fortunate classes, while many women conducted infant schools, teaching their pupils the catechism and prayers of the Church, reading, and some hand work.

Parochial Elementary Education. According to the practices of the Roman Catholic Church, her elementary schools have existed in all countries, and especially in those professing that faith. In Porto Rico the Church has always been active in education. Her schools were generally poorly equipped and badly taught with a curriculum confined to the catechism and prayers, reading, writing, and ciphering, but they were as good as any schools existing during most of the nineteenth century. The chief contribution of the Church all through

⁴³Moreno: Reglamento de los ejercicios para obtener las Escuelas Públicas de Instrucción primaria, pp. 47-49.

⁴⁴56th Cong. S.D. 363, p. 113.

⁴⁵*Ibid.*, p. 117.

the Spanish colonial days was in secondary education, which will be considered in another chapter.

Among the most active teachers in the parochial schools were the members of the religious order popularly known as "Escolapios," an order of school teachers. Their schools began with the elementary school subjects and went on with secondary education. The Sisters have always had schools for girls, where they attracted not only the daughters of the wealthy, but also offered some opportunity for the girls from poor families.

Summary. It is clear that the political situation in Spain and its corresponding educational policies had immediate effect on Porto Rico, but rather indirectly, and due to the activities of Porto Ricans themselves, and not to the application of the Spanish educational laws to Porto Rico. Those laws, applicable to Porto Rico, were not put into operation successfully. The government delegated much of its authority in matters of education to the Economic Society, but although this society has been much praised for its interest in popular education, its activities were among the privileged few, giving more attention to secondary education than to elementary education.

To a great extent elementary education for the first half of the nineteenth century was left to the private school-master, the private tutor and the Church. Generally the pupils receiving an elementary education were those whose parents could pay the fees. Nevertheless, after 1838, when the responsibility for education was thrown upon the Island, there was an increased interest in public instruction, especially during the governorship of Count de Mirasol and of Don Juan de la Pezuela.

The first half of the century closed with an attempt to establish schools in every municipality, giving some attention to teachers qualifications and examinations and placing the responsibility for education on the Island. The public function of the Economic Society as well as of the Provincial School Commission of 1838 was discontinued and the administration of education was placed on another body. The sad state of elementary education at the middle of the century was not due to lack of good laws, but to failure in executing them and to lack of interest and initiative on the part of the municipalities and local commissions.

C. EDUCATION UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF BELLES LETTRES (1851-1865)

It should be remembered at the outset that the activities of the private schools, the parochial schools and the private tutors continued during this new period the same as before, but the attention will be centered now mainly on official activities regarding public education.

La Real Academia de Buenas Letras. For the next fifteen years the administration of education is delegated to the Royal Academy of Belles Lettres. This new body was created on February 20, 1851, to administer education in the Island, succeeding the Economic Society and the Provincial Commission. The district and local commissions continued as before. The reasons for the establishment of this new body and its aim are clearly stated in Governor Pezuela's letter to the Madrid Government, February 10, 1851, from which the following is quoted:

Convinced that the encouragement of public instruction and of belles-lettres in the island is, first, a duty of the government; second, a matter of public utility, for which, by reason of its wealth and progress the island is now prepared, I proposed immediately after my arrival to give these matters all the support compatible with existing laws. Weighty business has commanded my attention since then and obliged me not only to postpone this project, but to submit all matters concerning the primary schools to the provincial junta already established, though with the reservation that its resolutions should always be submitted to me for my approval. This junta, however, composed of four individuals of worthy character, and devoted to the public interest, is not in a position to fulfill its duties. Its members are public employees in other departments and have not the time to devote to all matters involved in the instruction of youth and to the examination of text books. I therefore considered it proper to create another body which would have more leisure to devote to the public service. Therefore, sir, I have thought that an academy of belles-lettres, which should have for its object the extension of a knowledge of elegant and pure Castilian, in the whole Island, which should encourage local talent with prizes and rewards, and which should serve the government as an educational body, or as an executive in directing and furthering the interests of public instruction, would confer more benefit upon the country than the junta already mentioned. I have therefore devised a constitution for such an academy, which is submitted herewith.⁴⁶

As it would have taken a long time to receive an answer from Spain, Governor Pezuela organized the academy and put it to work, February 20, 1851, before having received the approval of the Crown, which was not received until March 17, 1853.⁴⁷ The Crown insisted

⁴⁶Moreno: *Academia Real de Buenas Letras*, pp. 53-54.

⁴⁷Moreno: *Gobierno y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico. Negociado Político, Sección 2a*, pp. 62-63.

that education should conform to the plan adopted for Cuba and Porto Rico.

Duties and Membership of the Academy. The duties of the Academy were to issue certificates to teachers after examination, to inspect all schools, to make such provisions as seemed advisable for public instruction, to appoint and dismiss teachers, to report to the government upon public schools, to supervise the public institutions of the Island, and to encourage by all means the possible development of general culture and the fine arts.⁴⁸ Neither copy of the statutes nor any membership list is available. In addition to the central body in San Juan there were corresponding members all over the Island, whose qualifications and duties are known. They had to be residents of the town for which they were appointed. When in San Juan they could be present at the sessions of the Academy. By virtue of their membership in the Academy they were members of the elementary school commissions of their respective towns. Their duties were to superintend the general needs of the schools and to supervise the teachers, both in their private life and in their work. They were to report the result of all their observations to the Royal Academy.⁴⁹ In brief, the total administration of instruction during these fifteen years was in the hands of the Royal Academy, the chief duty of which was to issue orders; the corresponding members acted as agents to see that the orders were obeyed.

Besides the supervising power of the corresponding members, the local commissions retained their old powers as defined in 1838. They generally neglected their duties, which was the cause of official reminders from the governors.⁵⁰

School Organization. The organization of the schools during this period was that inaugurated March 22, 1850, when the schools were divided into three classes, according to the importance of the towns.⁵¹ The plan for Cuba and Porto Rico, promulgated in 1842, should have been followed, but was not, both because the Island was not prepared for it, and because the distance from Cuba made it impracticable to administer the schools from Havana.⁵²

⁴⁸Moreno: Academia Real de Buenas Letras, pp. 53-54.

⁴⁹Moreno: Reglamento para los Corresponsales de la Academia de Buenas Letras de Puerto Rico, pp. 57-58.

⁵⁰Moreno: Visitas a las Escuelas, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Diciembre 24, 1858, p. 64. Partes de Visitas, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Julio 7, 1857, p. 76.

⁵¹Moreno: Provision de Escuelas, Reglamento, pp. 47-49.

⁵²Moreno: Academia Real de Buenas Letras, p. 71.

Interest in Rural Education. School attendance during this period was very poor. The rural districts had no facilities for education, and their children had to be sent to the town schools, which were generally too far distant. To remedy this condition recommendation was made to the towns to establish rural schools. This was not made mandatory, the government simply asking the mayors of the towns to stimulate the wealthiest rural residents to establish schools for their children, and for those of the poorer classes.⁵³ Very little was accomplished by such advice.

Teachers' Certificates. The legislation regarding the personnel of the schools shows interest in the work of the teacher. The rules formulated in 1849 for the appointment of teachers continued to be the fundamental rules and regulations which governed the teachers during the fifteen years under consideration. Due to the lack of women teachers, a special order was issued August 20, 1856, whereby any woman who wished to teach reading, catechism and needlework was given a certificate, provided a man teacher was employed for grammar, arithmetic and writing, which were subjects the women teachers did not know.⁵⁴ Only a slight proficiency in reading was required. On the whole this move was beneficial. The girls who attended such schools were of the poorer classes and by learning to sew they could make a living, which meant more to them than grammar, arithmetic and writing.

Teachers' Salaries and Promotions. Up to this time nothing had been done to regulate teachers' salaries. The teacher received as much as he could collect from his pupils, plus whatever he could get from the town councils for the poor pupils. Teachers could not devote all of their time to school duties because their incomes were so irregular, uncertain, and not sufficient to provide a comfortable living. At this time a forward step was taken in the provision fixing salaries of teachers according to the class of the school. In first class schools salaries were to be 550 pesos per annum; in second class schools, 400 pesos, and in third class schools, 300 pesos. Two schools in San Juan were already paying 780 pesos to each teacher, and these salaries were allowed to continue unchanged. All poor children were to be admitted free of charge, provided it was so recommended by the local town authorities.

⁵³Moreno: Escuelas, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, pp. 67-71.

⁵⁴Moreno: Autorización para ejercer el Magisterio, pp. 71-72.

Teachers were registered according to their years of service, and promotion was by seniority in the service. Teachers who wished to do so could take special examinations for positions in higher schools. The interest of the teachers in their work, and their quality of service, were taken into account for promotion into the government service, thus opening the way for the best teachers to step from teaching into higher government positions, which brought more lucrative returns and greater social prestige.⁵⁵ Teachers were also permitted to exchange positions without altering their rating in the salary scale.⁵⁶ This privilege was later very much abused.

Rules for the Attendance of Poor Children at School. The poor children were to be admitted without charge but these so crowded the schools, and so many whose parents could afford to pay attempted to enter free under this provision, that the children of the more prosperous were driven out. The school buildings were not spacious enough to accommodate all who wished to attend. A special order was therefore passed regulating the attendance of poor children. In the schools of San Juan each teacher was compelled to admit thirty poor children. Twenty poor children were allotted to each first class school, fifteen to a second class and eleven to a third class school. The municipality had to pay extra for each pupil above this number—twelve reales a month, or about sixty cents per pupil, in first class schools; eight reales in the second class, and four reales in the third class, provided the pupil attended at least fifteen days in the month. A pupil absent from school a month was dropped and another given his place. Pupils had to prove that they were poor and could not be admitted without a certificate from the town authorities.⁵⁷ Due to the fact that mere babies were sent to school and that some pupils were kept there too long, a definite school age was fixed. The child had to be seven years old to enter and could remain in school until eleven years of age, thus making the school course four years.⁵⁸

Curriculum, Methods of Teaching and Text Books. The curriculum during this period comprised reading, grammar, arithmetic, writing,

⁵⁵Moreno: Sueldos, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Marzo 7, 1851, pp. 54-57.

⁵⁶Moreno: Permutas, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Enero 12, 1865, p. 78.

⁵⁷Moreno: Niños Pobres, Capitanía General y Gobierno Superior Político de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Diciembre 29, 1853, pp. 65-67.

⁵⁸Moreno: Edad Escolar, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Junio 2, 1863, p. 77.

religion and morals.⁵⁹ Text books written in catechism form were generally used. The child learned the answer to the questions, and the recitation consisted in repeating the answer when the question was asked by the teacher or his assistant. In large schools the older pupils were employed as instructors, following the Lancasterian method of mutual instruction.

The teachers selected their own text books, often those which they themselves had used when children. Some made their own text books. Feeling that it was dangerous to the faith to allow this freedom in the choice of texts, the Church appealed to the Government to impose a uniform text in catechism. This was accomplished under Bishop Fray Pablo Benigno, October 7, 1859.⁶⁰ It was also thought dangerous to allow the teachers freedom in the choice of readers so that toward the end of the period a uniform text in reading was adopted and made "texto Forzoso,"—a text imposed by force in all educational institutions of the Island, both public and private.

This text was called "Crisol Histórico Español y Restauración de Glorias Nacionales," which may be translated Spanish Historical Crucible and the Restoration of National Glories.⁶¹ Great emphasis was also placed on church attendance. Teachers were urged to attend church with their pupils and see that they performed the rites of the church. Very few of the teachers lived up to this requirement.⁶² A great deal of emphasis was also placed upon examinations and prizes, and medals were given to stimulate school attendance and diligence.⁶³

Summary. Thus far elementary education in the Island was very deficient. It is impossible to have a school system working successfully without well prepared teachers, and no attention had been given to the preparation of teachers. Nothing was done for school buildings and the teachers generally conducted their classes in the largest room of their homes. There was no coordination in the school system, each teacher doing what he or she pleased. The monitorial system of instruction prevailed in the Island and all

⁵⁹Moreno: Reglamento de Exámenes, Diciembre 3, 1852, pp. 59-60.

⁶⁰Moreno: Texto para la Doctrina Cristiana, Secretaria de la Academia Real de Buenas Letras, Octubre 17, 1859, pp. 76-77.

⁶¹Moreno: Lectura, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Diciembre 24, 1864, p. 78.

⁶²Moreno: Prácticas Religiosas. Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Julio 7, 1857, pp. 75-76.

⁶³Moreno: Premios en las Escuelas, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Diciembre 3, 1852, pp. 56-62. Epocas de Exámenes, Gobierno Superior y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Octubre 16, 1853, pp. 63-64.

schools were ungraded. They were divided into sections and one of the most advanced pupils was placed in charge of each section.

The plan of the Academy of Belles Lettres with respect to primary education was very incomplete, introducing no far reaching reforms in method or organization. The district and local commissions continued the same as before. The directors of the Academy, for the most part public officials, could not devote much time to public instruction. The Academy from the beginning assumed a different character from that intended by General Pezuela, and devoted most of its attention to the encouragement of belles-lettres and the fine arts. The public schools were neglected by the Academy as well as by the districts and local commissions.

Nevertheless, progress was made. The interest in popular education increased. Some provision was made for poor children and these attended to such an extent that their numbers had to be limited. Standards of teaching received some attention. Although nothing was done for rural education, the needs of the rural population began to be studied. There was enough interest to make an inquiry of educational conditions throughout the Island. The census of 1860, under occupations, reports 459 teachers.⁶⁴ This number must have then included all persons who taught, whether in public schools, private schools or secondary schools, and all who professed to be teachers. The school census of 1864 gives the following school statistics for elementary education: 74 public schools for boys and 48 for girls, 16 private schools for boys and 9 for girls. 2,396 boys attended the schools, of whom 1,315 were poor and 1,081 were paying pupils. 1,092 girls attended, of whom 695 were registered as poor and 307 as paying students. There were 88 male teachers and 54 female teachers. The budget for education that year was 35,542 pesos, not including the fees of the paying pupils.⁶⁵ (Consult Appendix I)

⁶⁴War Department, Office Director Census of Porto Rico: *Report on the Census of Porto Rico, 1899*, p. 34.

⁶⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 128. Iñigo Abad: *Historia de Puerto Rico*. Supplementary notes by José Julian Acosta, p. 305.

CHAPTER IV

POLITICAL UNREST AND ATTEMPTS TO ESTABLISH A SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION (1865-1880)

A. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Spanish Revolution of 1868 and the Republic. The stormy reign of Isabella II came to an end with the Revolution of 1868, which sent the Queen as an exile to France. The following year a new Constitution was adopted. It guaranteed among other provisions, individual liberties and religious toleration, and provided for a monarchical parliamentary régime. After experiencing some difficulty in securing a King, Prince Amadeo of Savoy, the second son of King Victor Emmanuel II of Italy, accepted the Spanish Crown in 1870. After vainly attempting to pacify the country he abdicated on February 11, 1873. On his abdication a republican form of government was instituted under the presidency of Emilio Castelar.

Political Unrest in the Antilles. Political conditions in the Antilles were no less stormy than in the mother country. During the Civil War in the United States Spain attempted to regain some of her lost possessions in America, taking advantage of the fact that the United States was not in a position to enforce the Monroe Doctrine. On March 18, 1861, she took possession of Santo Domingo, which she had lost in 1821. The people resisted the Spaniards and a war followed which lasted four years. In 1865 Santo Domingo was again given her independence. Although the Porto Ricans sided with the mother country during these four years, yet many people in the Island, especially political leaders, did not hesitate to express sympathy for and offer aid to the people of Santo Domingo.

The Civil War in the United States and the liberation of the slaves in 1863 also gave impetus to the abolitionist movement in Porto Rico. Segundo Ruiz Belvis and Dr. Betances urged the granting of freedom to the slaves of Porto Rico. This request was further pressed by the delegation to Madrid in 1865, which had been called

there to furnish information regarding the need of legislative reform. On the return of the delegates from Spain a mutiny in the army was the cause for the exile of the leading men in the Island who opposed the policies of Spain. Dissatisfaction against the national government was brought to a climax by the Insurrection of Lares, September 17, 1868. The revolution and rise of the Liberals in Spain brought to Porto Rico the corresponding changes in government. The Island was made a province of Spain and given a provincial deputation and representation in the Cortes. The abolitionists secured the liberation of the slaves in March 22, 1873. In the meantime Cuba had declared herself in open revolt against Spain, giving rise to the insurrection of 1868. For ten years she fought bitterly for her freedom, during which time she had the moral support of the Porto Ricans.

Other Misfortunes. In addition to the political unrest the Island was called upon to experience other misfortunes. In 1867 the "San Narciso" cyclone swept over the Island causing much loss of property and suffering among the people. In the fall of the same year the Island shook almost constantly for a period of three months. Neuman Gandia had the following to say about conditions during the earthquakes: "There was a general panic among the people due to the horrible and continuous earthquakes that ruined many buildings and buried under the ruins an infinite number of dwellers. Nobody lived at home, the people encamped in the public plazas and in the streets."¹ The conflict between the abolitionists and slave owners, plus the political and social disturbances, brought about an economic crisis. Many wealthy people left the Island. It is estimated that about 56,000 persons emigrated, taking with them two million pesos to be invested in France, England and Germany.

General Messina's Attempt to Reform Elementary Education. In the midst of this political, social and economic chaos the Governor General tried to establish a system of public instruction. So far it cannot be said that Porto Rico had a system of public instruction. The nearest that the Island had come to having a system was in 1842 when the Plan for Public Instruction in Cuba and Porto Rico was formulated, but, as already noted, that project was never realized. In 1862 Spain sent to the Island as Governor, Lieutenant Don Felix de Messina. He is generally remembered for his blood and iron policies, his suppression of all liberal political ideas, and his persecution of

¹Gandia, Neuman: *Benefactores y Hombres Notables de Puerto Rico*, Vol. I, p. 244.

the liberal leaders of the day. However, he is also remembered for his initiative in improving public education.

He was the first to formulate a system of public instruction for Porto Rico. He tried to intervene in education with the same firmness with which he intervened in politics. But he was a soldier and not an educator. He had more or less an ideal system in mind which he wrote on paper, not taking into account the society where he expected to apply it. Its lack of adaptability to the educational conditions of the Island as well as to the economic and political conditions prevented its being put fully into operation. However, the law which he tried to enforce did have an influence on education and should be studied briefly.

B. DECRETO ORGÁNICO DE 10 DE JUNIO DE 1865

The Aim of the Decree. This school law was called Decreto Orgánico de 10 de Junio de 1865, The Organic Decree of June 10, 1865. The aim of the decree may be expressed in Governor Messina's own words:

Not only that the intellectual progress of these loyal and docile inhabitants may correspond to the material progress of the island which is developing rapidly, but also that they may be prepared to carry out the plan of studies for the island of Cuba, when it will please Her Majesty to apply it to this Island.²

Knowing the political unrest of the day, the struggle of Isabel II to hold her crown, the opposition in the Island to the policies of the mother country, and the persecutions that accompanied this opposition, it seems that this move on the part of the government was for nationalistic purposes, to manufacture a certain culture submissive to the policies of the mother country, to make loyal subjects of Spain. Whatever the motives of General Messina were, whether those of a benefactor or a politician, nevertheless he saw as a possibility of public education that it could be used as a tool to carry out the aims of the government.

Primary Education. Primary education was divided into elementary and superior. The first included the following curriculum: Catechism, elements of sacred history, reading, elements of grammar, writing, with emphasis on orthography, elements of arithmetic with weights and measures and money values, elements of agriculture,

²Moreno: Decreto Orgánico. Gobierno y Capitanía General de la Isla de Puerto Rico.—Secretaría de Gobierno, pp. 81-82.

industry and commerce, with special adaptation to the needs of the community.

In communities where this entire curriculum could not be taught, the schools were to be known as incomplete schools. Superior instruction, besides including the curriculum of the elementary school, included the first principles of geometry, mechanical drawing and surveying, geography and history, especially of Spain, and a general outline of physical science and natural history. In girls' schools, agriculture, industry, and commerce, geometry, mechanical drawing and surveying, and physical and natural sciences were replaced by designing, embroidery and domestic science. Elementary education was compulsory for all Spaniards; superior, optional. The elementary school age was from six to nine years and free to all those who could not pay.³

Definition and Distribution of Schools. Public schools were defined as those supported wholly or in part by public and charitable funds, or other funds destined for public education. Each municipality had to establish and support its own schools. All departmental seats and all cities of ten thousand inhabitants had to have one superior school, other cities of fewer inhabitants could have superior schools, provided they first established the required elementary schools. Under no circumstances was co-education to be allowed. The decree also called for infant schools and schools for adults in cities of ten thousand inhabitants or more. Encouragement was given to private schools. Special schools for colored children were to be established, where particular attention should be devoted to the moral and religious instruction of the pupils.⁴

Training and Qualification of Teachers. As no system of education could be successful without trained teachers, the decree provided for a normal school, with a model school for practice teaching annexed to it. All elementary school teachers had to pursue the following two year curriculum:—Spanish language, with parsing, composition and orthography, two years; catechism and sacred history, two years; arithmetic, one year; geometry, mechanical drawing and surveying, one year; agriculture, one year; theory and practice of teaching reading and writing, two years; three semesters of observation and practice teaching in the model school. Superior school teachers

³Moreno: Decreto Orgánico. Sección Primera. Título I de la Primera Enseñanza. Arts. 1-9, pp. 82-83.

⁴*Ibid.*, Sección Segunda, Título I, pp. 85-86.

were to pursue a three-year course, with an additional curriculum, and normal school teachers a four-year course.⁵ All public school teachers had to be Spanish citizens, men and women of good moral and religious conduct and twenty years of age,⁶ except in case of language teachers who could be foreigners, and teachers of incomplete schools who did not have to fulfill the academic requirements of the law. The latter needed only a certificate of good moral and religious character from the local school authorities.

Appointment and Status of Teachers. All public school teachers were to be appointed by the Governor General on recommendation from the local authorities. The appointment of private school teachers had to be approved by the Governor, and they also had to conform with the academic requirements of the law. In communities where there were incomplete schools, the secretary of the city council or the parish priest could act as school teacher. The profession of teaching was dignified and held as honorable as any other learned profession. Teachers were made government employees and were assured of their positions as long as their behavior was satisfactory. Their status was rendered stable by a provision that they could only be removed from their positions upon just complaint, established by due process of law.⁷

Salaries of Teachers. In addition to salaries, which were increased materially, teachers were entitled to house rent and to the fees of pupils who could pay. The following were the salaries provided by the decree:⁸

Superior schools	1,500 pesos
Superior school assistants	600 "
First class primary schools	600 "
Second class primary schools	420 "
Incomplete schools	180 "
Infant schools	500 "
Adult schools	300 "

Women were to have one-third less in salary than men teachers.⁹

Administration of Education. The administration of the public schools was vested in an insular committee called the Superior Junta of Public Instruction, and in local committees in the towns. The Superior Junta replaced the Royal Academy of Belles Lettres. It

⁵Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Sección primera, Título II, pp. 83-84.

⁶Moreno: Sección Tercera, pp. 87-89.

⁷Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Sección Tercera, pp. 97-99.

⁸Moreno: Escuelas Públicas, Secretaría del Gobierno, April 14, 1866, pp. 128-31.

⁹Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Sección Tercera, p. 89.

was composed of the Governor as president, a palace official as vice-president, and twelve members. The former town committees were replaced by the local juntas, composed, in the principal towns, of the mayor, a superior teacher, a member of the agricultural committee, a member of the city council, a priest, and two heads of families. In the smaller towns the committee was composed of the mayor, a member of the city council, the parish priest and four heads of families. The local committees had full charge of the administration and supervision of the schools of the community.¹⁰

Miscellaneous Instructions. In a number of rules and regulations published with the decree, minute details are given as to the functions and the working of the primary schools, teachers' examinations, the Superior Junta of Public Instruction and the local juntas. Of these rules and regulations the most important are those relating to the primary schools. Minute detail is given as to the qualification of the locality for the school, the management, the admission of children, length of the school session, punishment and prizes, religious and moral instruction, the teaching of the different subjects, and examinations.¹¹

It might be noted here what is said regarding the method of teaching:

Primary teachers are permitted to use the methods of simultaneous instruction or concert recitation with such modification as may seem best, or they may adopt mutual or Lancasterian instruction wherever this seems more desirable, or they may combine these two methods, in all cases where individual instruction does not seem practicable.¹² All teaching was to be done by text books which were prescribed by the government and the Church.¹³

Such were in brief the provisions of the decree whose principal aim was to reorganize thoroughly public instruction.

Schools to be Established. Following the publication of the decree, a number of circulars were issued by the Superior Board of Instruction. Of these the most important one concerned the number of schools that should be established in each municipality. The local boards had been asked to furnish the following information:

1. Number of pupils of school age (6-13), in each district, reporting males and females separately according to the census of 1860.

¹⁰Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Sección Cuarta, pp. 89-91.

¹¹Moreno: Reglamento para las Escuelas Públicas de Instrucción Primaria Elemental, pp. 95-104.

¹²*Ibid.*, Art. 47, p. 100.

¹³Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Sección Primera, Título IV, p. 85. Moreno: Libros de Texto, Secretaría del Gobierno, Junio 30, 1866, pp. 140-41.

2. Area of each district.
3. Subdivision of each district (barrio) and the population of each "barrio."
4. Number of boys assigned to each school, superior, elementary, rural and incomplete.¹⁴

From the data furnished by the municipalities, the government determined the number of schools corresponding to each municipality. There were ordered established 283 schools, 200 of which were incomplete, with an annual cost of 85,460 pesos.¹⁵ (See Appendix II.)

Inadaptability of the Decree. Even if it had been a model law, the decree of 1865 could not have been put into operation under the political, social and economic unrest of the times. But the decree was as visionary as any other school law which preceded it both in Porto Rico and in Spain. It can hardly be thought that it was expected to be carried out. There were no teachers to be found and such women teachers as there were hardly knew how to read and write, if judgment is to be passed upon them by the circular of August 20, 1856. The decree called for a normal school, but it was not established, and even if it had been established, it had to be run two years before it could prepare any teachers who would be qualified to teach under the new law. The municipalities objected to those features that related to them. Their protest was backed up by the teachers as the majority would have lost their positions if the law had been put into operation. A series of modifications resulted that led to its practical nullification.

Changes in the Decree. The decree was put into operation July 1, 1866. Its most successful year was the first, but many modifications were necessary before it could begin to function. It will be recalled that on January 27, 1866, the government had assigned the municipalities the number of schools to be maintained by each, making a total of 283 schools for the whole Island. Legally all the teachers in service should have been dismissed, as the qualifications for teachers and the character of the schools had been changed. Before the decree could be carried out, teachers had to be provided. On May 7, 1866, an order was issued by the Superior Board of Public Instruction ordering all elementary teachers to continue in their positions on the receipt of a certificate from the government complying with the decree. The requirements for teachers of superior schools were not

¹⁴Moreno: Estados Triemstrales. Dirección de Administración local de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Julio 21, 1865, p. 143. See Medelo, p. 172.

¹⁵Moreno: Escuelas Públicas, Secretaría de Gobierno, pp. 128-29.

changed.¹⁶ Provision was also made for the certification of teachers for incomplete schools that were vacant, teachers for these schools being certified by the municipalities that employed them.¹⁷ Still the number of teachers was not sufficient, and on October 27, 1866, local committees were ordered to hire teachers temporarily to fill vacancies. Teachers not having the proper certificates were to receive only half of the salary attached to the position.¹⁸

School attendance was poor during the year and effort was made, with some success¹⁹ on the part of the government, to stimulate it. The municipalities refused to furnish the teachers with residences for themselves and families, so that by order of July 24, 1866, the Superior Board ordered that "only the building used for school purposes should be paid by public funds."²⁰

Educational Conditions in 1867. With those changes the decree operated for one year. At the end of the year there were 240 schools for boys and 56 for girls, with a total attendance of 10,081 pupils of both sexes, at a total expense of 89,280 pesos. Of the total number of pupils, 6,144 were registered as poor and 3,937 as paying students. The total budget does not include the fees of those who could pay. In order to appreciate the effect of the decree during the first year, the statistics of 1864 should be kept in mind.²¹

Opposition to the Decree. The progress of the decree ended with the first year. Opposition was too strong for it to succeed. The municipalities first manifested opposition by trying to interfere with the duties of the local committees,²² that is, to force the committee to employ teachers from any part of the Island. As all that was required of these teachers was a certificate from the local committee, the local committee insisted on employing only those persons of the community who were known to them.²³ More or less influenced by the municipalities, the committees themselves opposed the decree and showed their opposition by passive resistance or refused to obey

¹⁶Moreno: Escuelas y Maestros, Junta Superior de Instrucción Pública de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Mayo 7, 1866, pp. 132-135.

¹⁷Moreno: Certificados de Aptitud, Junta Superior de Instrucción Pública de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Julio 17, 1866, p. 142.

¹⁸Moreno: Sueldos. Junta Superior de Instrucción Pública de la Isla de Puerto Rico, October 27, 1866, p. 150.

¹⁹Moreno: Asistencia de niños a las Escuelas, Junta Superior de Instrucción Pública de la Isla de Puerto Rico January 8, 1867, pp. 151-152.

²⁰Moreno: Casa, Junta Superior de Instrucción Pública, July 24, 1866, p. 147.

²¹Moreno: Decreto Orgánico Vigente, Preámbulo, p. 314. (See Appendix I).

²²Moreno: Atribuciones de las Juntas, p. 149.

²³Moreno: Certificados de Aptitud, p. 142.

the orders of the government.²⁴ On October 24, 1867, the government ordered the local authorities to compile a census of all children between the ages of eight years and fourteen.²⁵ In May of the next year the local authorities were reminded of this request and were again ordered to comply with the orders of the government.²⁶ The municipalities which did obey the orders of the government sent reports which were carelessly made, incomplete and full of mistakes.²⁷ Again and again they were reminded of their duties without satisfactory results.²⁸

The municipalities also manifested their opposition to the decree by refusing to pay the house rent of the teachers, by refusing to support all of the schools, by petitioning the government to order some of the superior schools closed, and to reduce the salaries of the teachers, which were considered too large,²⁹ by holding in arrears the salaries of teachers and by refusing to provide the schools with equipment.³⁰

A circular of the government, dated June 30, 1869, has the following to say regarding the local boards: "Many municipal corporations, in fact a majority of those in the Province, are proved by the innumerable papers filed in explanation of their neglect, to have seldom complied with the orders of the government, and to have opposed its wishes. The apathy and systematic opposition of those who believe that municipal responsibility does not imply scrupulous veracity and observance of duty in matters of public instruction should be demonstrated by facts and figures. If we are to take, however, authentic unofficial testimony, there are towns that are fully as backward in school matters at the present time as before the reforms introduced by the decree of the 10th of June, 1865. It would be a long story to enumerate all the causes of this lamentable condition. The most important, however, as the government is frank in stating, is the absolute lack of true patriotism and civic spirit on the part of some local juntas charged with the supervision of public instruction, and the proved negligence of many teachers who, after securing their certificates, treat their positions much as commercial appointments, being per-

²⁴Moreno: Compare pp. 145, 147, 149, 150.

²⁵Moreno: Estadística, Octubre 25, 1867, pp. 150-59.

²⁶Moreno: Asistencia a las Escuelas, May 2, 1868, p. 160.

²⁷Moreno: Estados, February 5, 1869, p. 165.

²⁸Moreno: Compare documents in pp. 160-170 inclusive and pp. 184-185.

²⁹Moreno: Rebaja de Sueldos, Junio 9, 1868, pp. 161-65.

³⁰Moreno: Pagos, Enero 15, 1871, pp. 182-83.

mitted to do so through the lack of interference on the part of the authorities immediately over them."³¹

Opposition from the Teachers. The opposition came not only from the municipalities, but from the teachers themselves. The new law meant very little to them, because they were having difficulty in collecting any salaries at all, their house rent was not being paid and they had nothing to gain from the law, but much to lose. According to the law the new reform was gradually to replace them by younger teachers, graduates from a normal school; the law also demanded an examination in case any teacher wished to be promoted to the position of superior teacher. Being losers in all respects the teachers effectually opposed the law by passive resistance to the provisions of the decree. The greatest opposition came from the women teachers who were more poorly prepared than the men.

Influence of the Opposition on the Execution of the Decree. The result of such opposition was the practical nullification of the decree by orders from the government. The first victory for the municipalities came when the government yielded to the protest of the municipalities in refusing to pay the house rent of the teachers, and ordered that "the public welfare demanded that there should be provided a suitable and commodious room for the schools, to be paid for from the public funds, and not a residence for the teacher and his family."³² The greatest blow to the decree came two years after when the appropriation for the rent of school houses and salaries of teachers was decreased, with the exception of rural school teachers; when many schools were suppressed, among them all adult schools, and when assistants in superior schools were discontinued. The salaries provided for were as follows:

Superior schools	1000 pesos
First class primary schools	500 "
Second class primary schools	390 "
Incomplete schools	180 " ³³

Inspection. A system of inspection was attempted. On October 19, 1867, a decree was issued by Governor General Marchesi, creating a system of general inspection of public instruction. The decree was approved by royal order of June 25, 1868. It was complete and gave minute details of the qualifications, duties and method of the inspectors. Two inspectors were named, Don Vicente Fontan and

³¹Moreno: *Memoria y Visitas*, Junio 30, 1869, pp. 167-68.

³²Moreno: *Casa*, Julio 24, 1866.

³³Moreno: *Rebaja de Sueldos, Casas*, June 9, 1868, pp. 161-65.

Don Federico Asenjo.³⁴ Nothing is known of the work of these gentlemen. The system of inspection was changed October 10, 1872, when Don Adolfo Babilonia, a primary school teacher, was named general inspector. Inspection remained in the hands of the local committees, which were frequently reprimanded on account of their neglect of duty. In 1873 Don Jose Francisco Diaz was appointed general inspector and his visit of inspection through the Island was announced, but that was the last heard about him³⁵ until he was removed. Nothing is known of the work accomplished by the inspectors. All the members of the Superior Junta had also powers of inspection.³⁶

Education After the Revolution of 1868. After the revolution of 1868, the policy of decentralization was extended to the Island, the municipalities gained more and more powers, until municipal autonomy was established in 1873 at the beginning of the republican form of government in Spain. The municipal system allowed the municipalities full authority in questions of education. But the municipalities were not prepared to handle their own affairs in education, as can be judged from their opposition to the 1865 decree, and from the activities of the municipalities in education as they gained more power. They removed and employed teachers, and established and suppressed schools indiscriminately.³⁷ At last General Rafael Primo de Rivero intervened and defined the powers and duties of the municipalities in matters of education, under the new system of decentralization. This came late and there was not time to try its provisions before changes in the Spanish government brought about changes in the insular government.³⁸

Summary. The educational progress made under the decree can well be determined from the facts already considered. In June of 1869 there were 313 schools, with an attendance of 8,129 pupils, or a loss of 1,952 pupils from the attendance in 1867. The public expenditure for school maintenance that year was 88,136 pesos, or 2,697 pesos less than two years before.³⁹ Political, social and economic conditions rendered progress impossible.

There were during the period nine governors, each one with a

³⁴Moreno: *Inspection*, Octubre 19, 1867, p. 190.

³⁵Moreno: *Visitas de Inspeccion*, Julio 7, 1873, p. 191.

³⁶Moreno: *Inspectores*, Julio 24, 1873, p. 191.

³⁷Moreno: *Reformas de 1874*, p. 204.

³⁸Moreno: *Atribuciones de los Ayuntamientos*, Octubre 27, 1873, p. 192.

³⁹Moreno: *Decreto Orgánico de 1880*, p. 314.

different policy and obliged to act in accord with events in Madrid, which could not have been more unfavorable. The decree was good and complete, but impossible of application in a society not prepared for it, and where public opinion was against its operation. School organization continued as before; school teachers continued the same in preparation and efficiency; no improvement was made in school buildings; refusal to pay rent for teachers' residences meant that they would live with their families in the same house rented for school purposes; teachers' salaries increased in law and decreased in practice, for the teachers had difficulty in collecting them.

After the decentralization, the municipalities did not have enough time to try out the new policies before a change came. Had they had time, some municipalities might have improved conditions, but the majority would not have done any better than under the centralized system, and perhaps worse for their activities in education, with few exceptions, were anything but creditable.

C. THE RESTORATION AND REFORMS OF GENERAL SANZ

The Restoration and Reaction. With the fall of Castelar as President of the executive of the Spanish Republic in January 2, 1874, the republican government of Spain ended. It is true that in name the Republic continued until the Restoration, but the government of the Peninsula was a military dictatorship from January 1874 to December of the same year, when General Martinez Campo proclaimed Alfonso XII the rightful ruler of Spain. The young King assumed the reins of government January 14, 1875. The policies of the militarists were very different from those of the Republicans. In Porto Rico the popular Governor, D. Rafael Primo de Rivera, was replaced by D. José Laureano Sanz, who had been Governor of the Island in 1869, and who distinguished himself by his political persecutions.

The home government, fearing that the liberties enjoyed by the natives during the period of the Republic might ultimately lead to the loss of the colony, adopted repressive measures with orders to restore the former political organization. On his arrival the new Governor dissolved the Provincial Deputation, checked the powers of the municipalities, censured the press, interfered with the freedom of speech, and filled all positions with officers in sympathy with the government. He discontinued the Civil Institute, the most popular educational institution of the Island, established the year before.⁴⁰

⁴⁰See Chapter on Secondary Education.

Educational Aim of the Government of the Restoration. The educational policy of the restoration government is distinctly set forth in the circular of the Minister of Ultramar,⁴¹ January 26, 1874. To quote in part from that document:

The new government, which has taken charge of the destinies of the country at such a critical time, considers among its most noble duties to watch with care the progressive, prudent and solid development of education in the provinces of Ultramar. . . I charge Your Excellency to try by all means possible that all teachers in that province, in their respective spheres, support and promote the policies of the government, and that you place and maintain in office teachers of the qualifications already named, who are able to inspire and implant deeply in the souls of the young the satisfaction that results from exact execution of duty, from respect for the principles of authority and especially the authority of the fatherland, 'Patria.' At the same time, I pray you to make all teachers understand that the government of the Metropolis is ready to reward all those who, inspired by high and sacred motives, fulfill their mission as instructors of the young; while on the other hand the government is also ready to punish with all rigor all those who because of negligence, malice, or any other cause fail to live up to their high calling.⁴²

The mission of the teacher and living up to his high calling meant here to subscribe unconditionally to the orders of the government, as it is seen in the following quotation from the same document:

You will see that under no pretext whatever do teachers stimulate the spirit of dissension, nor encourage the vertigo of fatal and pernicious political views.

The Activities of Governor Sanz. Governor Sanz was just the man to carry out such orders. He demanded of the municipalities a report on whatever action on education had been taken by them during the season of municipal autonomy, a complete record of all teachers, their preparation, qualifications, past record and, above all, political views; how they had entered the service and whether they had been transferred and promoted; what schools had been established by the municipalities and under what conditions and regulations. By the same document, all teachers appointed, transferred or promoted against the provision of the 1865 decree were thereby dismissed and all schools not established in accord with that decree were to be closed.

In the meantime all vacancies in the schools were to be filled by teachers of good moral character who enjoyed the confidence of the government. All teachers who had been unlawfully removed by the municipalities were to present their complaints and make applica-

⁴¹Ministry of Oversea Possessions.

⁴²Moreno: Reformas de 1874. Disposiciones del General Sanz, Puerto Rico, 13 de Febrero de 1874, p. 205.

tion for reappointment.⁴³ Such an order meant that all teachers were to be dismissed and their places filled by those who had earlier lost their positions because of their conservative political views.

Inspection Suppressed and Teachers Removed. The next act of the Governor was to do away with the existing inspection. The general inspector was dismissed and the plan of inspection of 1867, under the 1865 decree, was re-established, but no inspector was named.⁴⁴ In order to remove all the teachers from the schools, the Governor ordered the full execution of the 1865 decree and following rules and regulations.⁴⁵ As the teachers then in the service had not had the privilege of a normal school education, because there was none, and had not secured their positions in accordance with the decree and following regulations concerning the same, but had been appointed by the municipalities, it meant that all of them would be removed, and so it happened later.

Spanish Teachers for the Island. The aim of the Governor was to import teachers from Spain for the public schools of Porto Rico. Already he had intimated this to the government in Madrid. On February 25, 1874, he had written the Minister of Ultramar thus:

It would be convenient to have a sufficient number of well trained teachers, who are completely Spanish in sentiment, to inculcate in the pupils the most healthy Christian and moral maxims, specially to teach them to love the fatherland so that they may grow to be loyal subjects of Spain, good citizens and fathers able to support their families. As there are not in the Island all the teachers needed, let me suggest that if it is pleasing to you this opportunity be brought before the Spanish teachers, who, having the qualifications, would like to be transferred to the Island, where many schools will be left vacant.⁴⁶

Porto Rican Teachers Falsely Accused and Dismissed. Two months and a half later, the Porto Rican teachers had been dismissed for the most part and another communication went to the home government so informing. At that time Governor Sanz said:

Most of the teachers, some on account of their radical and autonomistic views, others on account of their doubtful morality, some of whom are affiliated with various secret societies, and because of their hostile sentiment to the Spaniards, which they unfortunately transmit to their pupils, are sowing a seed pernicious to the future welfare of the province and the fatherland, the bitter fruits of which are already being reaped in the sister Antilla (Cuba). I have therefore directed as a political measure

⁴³Moreno: Reformas de 1874, Disposiciones del General Sanz, Puerto Rico, 13 de Febrero de 1874, pp. 206-207.

⁴⁴Moreno: Inspección. Decreto, Puerto Rico, 20 de Febrero de 1874, pp. 207-208.

⁴⁵Moreno: Provisión de Escuelas por Oposición Decreto, Puerto Rico, 25 de Febrero de 1874, pp. 209-210.

⁴⁶Moreno: Resoluciones adoptadas, 25 de Febrero, 1874, p. 209.

of the highest importance that all teachers be removed from the schools upon the ground that their antecedents and reprehensible conduct renders them unworthy of the noble and lofty mission entrusted to them, especially when, with rare exceptions, none of them have entered into the service by competitive examination, or by legal procedure as required by the existing laws. I have already called your attention to the urgent need of teachers from the peninsula whom we can put in charge of most of the schools that will remain vacant. Moved as I am by the desire to keep this Island united to Spain, again I urge upon you the same need. That union depends principally on the teaching given in the schools, as out of them will come good or bad Spaniards, according to the doctrine taught to the young by the teachers.⁴⁷

It was the intention of the government to give the best paid schools to the Spanish teachers, so that they might be able to profit by the transfer.

The main concern during the rest of the period, up to 1880, when a new school law was put into operation, was the appointment, transfer and resignation of teachers. When the 1865 decree was put into operation again it was not so much a question of what should be taught as of who should teach. The feeling between the Governor and the natives was bitter. Even the most conservative in the Island who supported the government began to feel that the measures of the Governor were too severe. The Spanish government hesitated at first to comply with the demands of the Governor, but at last yielded, due to the fact that the children were out of school or taught by teachers who were chosen because of their political affiliations and not because of professional fitness.

Appointment of Teachers. On August 31, 1874, the Madrid government published a list of the schools vacant in Porto Rico and called upon teachers who wished to apply for them to present their qualifications.⁴⁸ On October 15 of the same year, Governor Sanz did the same for the Island, having been convinced by this time that he should give an opportunity to the Porto Rican teachers. He delayed his action as long as possible to give every chance to the Spanish teachers.⁴⁹ It was not until November 3, 1874, that the first teachers were appointed in Madrid. On that date the appointment of thirty-one men and eighteen women teachers was published.⁵⁰ The teachers

⁴⁷Moreno: Remisión, 12 de Mayo de 1874, pp. 211-12.

⁴⁸Moreno: Concurso, publicado en Madrid, Ministerio de Ultramar, Secretaria General, Madrid, 31 de Agosto de 1874, pp. 213-14.

⁴⁹Moreno: Cablegrama, al Ministro de Ultramar, Porto Rico, Oct. 13, 1874, pp. 214-15.

Moreno: Provision de Escuelas por Concurso, Puerto Rico, Oct. 15, 1874, pp. 215-16.

⁵⁰Moreno: Nobramientes, Puerto Rico, Noviembre 2, 1874, pp. 217-19.

named were supposed to take charge of the schools in fifteen days,⁵¹ but many of them failed to do so as they had to come from Spain. The year 1874 went by with few schools open, and those were in the hands of political appointees specially recommended by the conservative party, whose influence was then all powerful. All of these teachers, with a few exceptions, were appointed temporarily.⁵² It has been the practice in Spain to regard teachers as government officials, permanently appointed to positions from which they could only be removed by due process of law. Most of the teachers appointed during the period under consideration were temporary teachers, liable to lose their positions or to be transferred at any moment.

Disadvantages of Spanish Teachers and More Recognition of the Native Teachers. The qualifications of the Porto Rican teachers and the reasons for their failure to receive appointment were investigated by the Madrid government in April 1875, after the Restoration.⁵³ No other appointments were made until July 5 and 6, 1875, when 152 teachers were either given schools or were placed on the waiting list to fill vacancies. These included both Spanish and native teachers.⁵⁴ The appointments continued all during the period. After 1876, when a new governor had been named, he was ordered to hold examinations for teachers in the Island, as it was not practicable to continue to import teachers from Spain. The Spanish teachers took many risks in making the voyage and, after their arrival, in getting used to the climate.

The royal orders and decrees on education during this period show that many of the teachers, especially women, appointed in Madrid never came; others came, were displeased with conditions, and being able to do better at home, resigned and left soon after their arrival;⁵⁵ still others arrived, became ill, and returned home on leave of absence. Those on leave of absence hired substitutes to keep their schools open and paid the substitutes half of their salaries.⁵⁶ Most of the teachers were nominated by election, since the Spaniards were the first ones who refused to submit to competitive examinations.

⁵¹Moreno: Posesión, Puerto Rico, Noviembre 7, 1874, p. 220.

⁵²Moreno: Interinidades, Ministerio de Ultramar, Madrid, Marzo 24, 1874, p. 223.

⁵³Moreno: Maestros no Colocados, Al. Excmo. Sr. Ministro de Ultramar, Puerto Rico, 27 de Abril de 1875, pp. 223-24.

⁵⁴Moreno: Nombramientos de Maestros, Puerto Rico 30 de Julio, 1875, pp. 225-27.

⁵⁵Moreno: All documents entitled Nombramientos in pages 227-32.

⁵⁶Moreno: Maestros con Licencia, Puerto Rico, 29 de Noviembre, 1878, p. 238.

Some of the town councils found fault with the efficiency of the Spanish teachers to the extent that two of them were dismissed for inefficiency. The government then replaced them in their former positions, an act which widened the breach between native officials and Spanish teachers, and between Spanish and Porto Rican teachers⁵⁷ which had already been manifested. The Porto Ricans felt that partiality in pay and treatment was shown to Spanish teachers who had received their appointments by royal order.⁵⁸

Rules Governing Private Schools. Governor Sanz not only interfered with the teachers of the public schools but also decreed rules and regulations governing the teachers in the private schools. All private schools were ordered to be closed and their re-opening was prohibited without a permit from the government. No more private schools could be established without authority of the Governor. Only Spaniards and those Porto Ricans who had distinguished themselves for loyalty to the government were permitted to teach in the private schools.

All text books used in the private schools had to be approved by the government, and all private schools were placed under the immediate supervision of the government and local committees of public instruction.⁵⁹ The decree brought the private school pupils under the same teachers as those of the public schools, that is, those approved by the political machine. The wealthy who patronized the private schools could not avoid the high hand of the Governor, nor could teachers, left without positions for political reasons, establish schools.

Text Books. The text books used by all the schools were those sanctioned by the government. More than that, the teachers were compelled to teach what the books said, which were supposed to be "as authoritative as or more so than the teacher."⁶⁰ The text book question was abused greatly, as those teachers who enjoyed the favor of the government wrote text books and had the government sanction them. The educational value of the text book was not taken into account, but the political influence of the author to have the government or the Church declare the books lawful was what counted.

Remuneration of Teachers. Each teacher received a salary plus

⁵⁷Moreno: Reposición, Gobierno General de la Isla de Puerto Rico, Secretaria, Puerto Rico, 20 de Diciembre de 1878, pp. 244-48.

⁵⁸Moreno: Moneda Oficial, Puerto Rico, 14 de Febrero de 1877 pp. 123-34.

⁵⁹Moreno: Enseñanza Privada, Decreto, Puerto Rico 8 de Enero de 1875, pp. 220-21.

⁶⁰Moreno: Libros de Texto, Puerto Rico, 18 de Enero de 1875, pp. 221-23.

two allowances for rent and school supplies. For example, D. Gabino Nuñez y Lopez was appointed to the school of Vega Baja by royal order of January 24, 1876, with a salary of 2500 pesetas, 500 pesetas for rent, and 125 pesetas for school supplies.⁶¹ It is a known fact that many teachers took the money, rented a house for school purposes as well as a residence for himself and family, and bought as few school supplies as possible, which were in turn generally sold to the pupils, a practice which still prevails in many places in Spain.

Educational Conditions in 1878. Education under the conditions related could not prosper very much. General Sanz was followed by two other governors, who, although more liberal, did not do much to improve educational conditions. In July, 1878, a new governor was sent to the Island, Governor Eulogio Despujols. He made a visit of inspection to the schools and devoted his attention mainly to the reorganization of education. One of his first acts was to order the municipalities to furnish the government with statistics showing the number of boys and girls between six and fourteen years of age.⁶² On his arrival the Island was reported to have 731,648 inhabitants, 368 schools attended by 12,144 children of both sexes, at an annual cost of 129,457 pesos. He compared that with the state of education in 1867, and said with regard to the failure of the decree of 1865, "Upon investigation of causes that in 1868 nullified the good effects of the Organic Decree, I have become convinced that the chief among them was the fact that its underlying principles, although appreciated by the more intelligent element of the population, were not understood by the masses in general. Perhaps there should have been a period of preparation; that a persuasive and authoritative voice should have been heard as the precursor of the coming reform; that before being put into operation its necessity should have been repeatedly enjoined upon the people, until at last the teaching body, the general public and the corporations under whose control it had to be carried out would have been so thoroughly convinced of its value and necessity as to have been willing readily to accept the economic burdens it imposed. They should have established a system of inspection that from the first day would have insisted on the full execution of the law."⁶³

General Despujol Begins His Educational Activities. General Des-

⁶¹Moreno: *Nombramientos en Propiedad*, Puerto Rico Feb. 13, 1876, p. 228.

⁶²Moreno: *Relaciones de Niños*, Puerto Rico 23 de Agosto de 1878, p. 237.

⁶³Moreno: *Decreto Orgánico Vigente*, Preamble, p. 316.

pujol tried also to have the teachers assured of their positions and secured permanent appointments to all worthy teachers who had only temporary appointments. He even refused to take schools away from teachers who were doing satisfactory work, in order to place the ones appointed by the government at Madrid. He also tried to improve the salaries of teachers, especially rural teachers, who were receiving only fifteen pesos a month. He re-established competitive examinations for superior school teachers, but not for the elementary schools, because there were not enough teachers well prepared, and he would not have been able to fill all the vacancies had he insisted on the required competitive examination.⁶⁴ He appropriated 5,000 pesos for school supplies, which were almost entirely lacking at the time.⁶⁵ He divided the Island into two districts, north and south, and appointed an inspector for each of them.⁶⁶ Moreover, he tried to prepare public opinion so as to be able to re-organize public instruction on a new basis which he was preparing and which will receive attention in our consideration of the next period.⁶⁷

D. CONDITION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN 1880

The period under discussion ends with the year 1880. As to the educational conditions in the Island at that time, the official reports of the inspectors and of the governor speak for themselves. In June, 1880, there were 328 public schools for boys and 104 for girls, a total of 432 public schools, with an attendance of 15,218 pupils, 10,736 boys and 4,482 girls; at a total expense of 191,158 pesos. (See Appendix IV.)

Bobadilla's Report. As to the teachers and their work, D. José Bobadilla, inspector of the northern district, has the following to say:

As to teachers, no specified scholastic requirements were enforced. What was the qualification necessary to teach in schools of the lowest class? A simple statement of fitness and good character, issued by the local junta and approved by the governor-general. He who could simply read, write and teach the catechism satisfied the legal requirements of a teacher. It is true that some of the juntas in principal towns, whose membership included the superior teacher, demanded a strict

⁶⁴*Ibid.*, p. 317.

⁶⁵Moreno: Material, Puerto Rico, 4 de Febrero de 1880, p. 254.

⁶⁶Moreno: Inspeccion. Decreto, Puerto Rico 20 de Enero de 1880, pp. 251-54.

Moreno: Inspeccion, Nombramiento del Inspector distrito Norte, Puerto Rico, 1 de Abril de 1880.

Moreno: Inspeccion, Nombramiento del Inspector para el Distrito Sud, Puerto Rico, Aibonito, 3 de Septiembre de 1880.

⁶⁷Moreno: Primera Enseñanza, Puerto Rico 12 de Junio de 1880, pp. 256-59.

fulfillment of the requirement that applicants for teachers' positions should be examined. Most of the other school boards, however, dispensed with this entirely. Moreover section 7 of the regulations issued by the superior junta in May 7, 1866 required that the comisarios of the barrios should be given the preference in appointment for the schools thereafter established, and the sixth section of the same regulations authorized the appointment of any neighbor of good repute to these positions.

These rules were made because of the commendable desire to extend the school privileges to the largest number possible, but have had virtually the opposite effect since the discretionary authority granted to the juntas has been exercised, not for the purpose of helping the schools, but for protecting their own unqualified protégés. What practical benefit could result from placing at the head of the school an industrious and honorable man without any scholastic qualifications, without the slightest notion of how to teach, without any code of rules to follow, and without any direction or supervision.

In these incomplete schools, with a few very rare exceptions, the three or four or five poor children that attended them learned by heart part of the catechism and the epitome of grammar; they added, subtracted, multiplied and divided whole numbers with considerably less certainty than the arithmetic table then popular in the island; they were ignorant of numerical notation, and reading, and they wrote poorly, so that it is easy to see that no great benefit was to be derived from the few days instruction they received before leaving the school.⁶⁸

Infiesta's Report. Mr. Alejandro Infiesta Garcia, inspector of the southern district, has the following to say:

These establishments for popular instruction were rather a burden than a benefit to the people. Statistics, although incomplete and full of errors, as was natural under the conditions under which they were gathered, prove this fact. There was not a single person who could read or write found in most of the barrios where there were these incomplete or temporary schools. These were known as rural schools and fixed by law in a single place, after the first visit of inspection made at the time of the publication of the decree of 1880. What a dark and lamentable picture these schools presented. I who know the endeavors of the government to place public instruction upon a worthy basis that would offer a guarantee of real results, and its desire to provide for the independence and security of the teacher, I, who believe and have always believed that the inspector should not be an unpopular agent of the government, but a source of inspiration; not an instrument of correction, but an energetic defender of the teacher who should fulfill his duties and work earnestly for those who, in the isolation of the distant barrios consecrate their lives to the priesthood of teaching, I repeat, I cannot view without alarm the utter neglect or pass without censure the absolute incompetency of those intrusted with the care of the young, mere ciphers incapable of instructing the generation that is rising, and for this reason I feel it my duty to call the attention of the government to these conditions, for this generation represents the future of the country.⁶⁹

Character of Instruction. So far as instruction was concerned, Mr. Infiesta says:

⁶⁸56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 131.

⁶⁹*Ibid.*

In 1880 I made my first tour. But five towns had maps in their schools. As a rule there was no class in geography and where this most important subject was taught it was by memory in such a mechanical way that in many towns and in important schools not a single pupil knew to what nation this province belongs. I had the honor to report this to your worthy predecessor, the Count of Caspo, and shortly afterwards the government lent its generous aid, providing each of the schools with a map of the world, one of Spain, and a relief map of the province. Especially in the girls schools geography was absolutely unknown.⁷⁰

Equipment and Supplies. With reference to equipment and supplies the Governor said:

Coming down to recent times, I may further inform you that eight months after my arrival and while the ayuntamientos were still appointed directly by the government, the equipment of the schools of the whole island could not have been worse. There were boys' schools in the principal towns which did not have a single writing book; some had but three copies of the grammar: notwithstanding the fact that the teacher had asked for these books repeatedly and petitions for them had been presented to the ayuntamientos by the local juntas. In one of the girls' schools the teacher was compelled to teach grammar orally from the only manuscript text that she possessed. But even now, with ayuntamientos elected by popular vote, of the 1,618 boys attending the schools of one of the most important towns of the island, only 637 have seating accommodations. If this is the case after the government has just distributed school desks for 1,120 children of the superior schools of the island, what must have been the condition before, when in one of the heads of the departments with over 100 children enrolled, there were, two months ago, but 25 seats provided by the municipality, and in one of the public schools there was not a single writing desk. A trifle over a year ago, the Governor-General provided 1,000 pesos' worth of new furniture for a school of adults, this furniture has not yet been delivered, because no room has been provided for the schools. If this is the condition in the principal towns, what must be the conditions of schools in the villages?⁷¹

Summary. There was no educational progress after the Restoration, due to the intense political feeling entering all school matters. Educational conditions in general were the same as in the year 1865, and even worse. The undue attention given to the teacher was not moved by professional objectives, but entirely by political aims. The teacher was a tool in the hands of a despotic Governor. No attention was given to education for its own sake. The problem of the period was not an educational but a political one. In spite of such conditions and lack of educational progress, the conception that education is a function of the state was definitely formulated. Education began to be used as a tool of the state to carry out its political aims. The improvement of conditions toward the end of the period prepared the way for the constructive work of Governor Despujol to be considered in the next chapter.

⁷⁰56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 131.

⁷¹*Ibid.*, p. 132.

CHAPTER V

REORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION BY THE ORGANIC DECREE OF 1880 (1880-1898)

A. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Spain After the Restoration. Soon after the restoration of Alfonso XII to his throne, the present Constitution was drawn up and promulgated in 1876. It is a moderately liberal document which has withstood all the political storms since that date. Thereafter until the time of the war with the United States, Spain enjoyed peace at home under alternating Conservative and Liberal ministries, headed respectively by Cánovas del Castillo and Sagasta, thinking that in the orderly rotation in office of two great political parties, which were loyal to the throne, the permanence of the monarchical régime would be assured.

Government of Porto Rico After the Restoration. In February, 1877, the new Spanish Constitution together with the provincial and municipal laws was extended to Porto Rico and the Provincial Deputation was re-established. Suffrage was extended to any male resident twenty-five years of age or over who had received a professional diploma, or paid taxes to the amount of twenty-five pesos. The major part of the population was excluded from the suffrage under this provision.

Autonomy: The Political Programme of the Porto Ricans. During the time of the Republic, in 1875, the Island had enjoyed considerable privileges of self-government. These privileges being suppressed at the restoration, the Porto Ricans began again to plan and to work for self-government. They demanded that the Island be allowed to regulate her own affairs. The demands of the natives were denied by the Spanish government. In the Island the Conservative party, composed of Spaniards born in the peninsula, and of Porto Ricans who were on the side of Spain, ran the insular affairs at their pleasure

by means of "caciquismo" or "boss" rule. They were opposed by the Porto Ricans who demanded self-government.

The Autonomous Party. After ten years of propaganda and political unrest, in order to give form to their ambitions and demands from the Spanish government, a number of popular representatives of the people, opposed to the policies of Spain, met in Ponce in 1887 under the leadership of Don Román Baldorioty de Castro. They formed a new political party called "El Partido Autonomista" or the autonomous party and demanded of Spain that, while accepting political and judicial identity with the mother country, and recognizing her sovereignty over the Island, the Porto Ricans be given the right to regulate all affairs that concerned the Island alone. In other words, they demanded autonomy or home rule.

Political Unrest and Persecution. At the same time that this party was organized there was also organized in Ponce a secret society, the members of which aimed to protect themselves from the Spanish business interests in the Island. Don Luis Dabán, the Governor General at the time, paid very little attention to the movement, but not so his successor, General Don Rumualdo Palacios. He charged the autonomist party with conspiracy against the national integrity by means of secret societies, and instituted what is famously known in the Island by the name of "Los Compontes." As the name implies, this meant persecution and even torture for individuals suspected of conspiracy against the government.

The famous "Guardia Civil" or State Police would surprise the homes of suspected individuals at night, would tie them to the tails of their horses, and conduct them to some lonely place, where by means of the whip they were compelled to reveal whatever propaganda they were conducting against the government. The leaders of the autonomous party were persecuted and imprisoned. All men of liberal ideas were likewise persecuted to the extent that in Mayagüez people preferred to commit suicide rather than to submit themselves to the whipping by the police. The peasants would flee from their huts by night and sleep in the woods to avoid the nightly raids of the police. No news could be sent out of the Island to present complaints to the government at Madrid. At last some autonomists succeeded in fleeing from the Island and presented their grievance to the home government. General Palacios was removed immediately and replaced by Don Juan Contreras (in 1887), who put an end to the "Compontes" and reestablished peace.

The People of Porto Rico Granted Home Rule. The autonomists continued their struggle against the Conservative Party and met again in Assembly in Mayagüez, March 1891. At the same time Cuba was preparing to rise in arms against the mother country, and her problems met with sympathy among the Porto Ricans. Events in Cuba went from bad to worse resulting in open rebellion against the government and proposed intervention on the part of the United States. At last, in 1897, autonomy was granted to both islands. It was inaugurated in Porto Rico February 11, 1898. The new government consisted of the Governor General with his Cabinet and a representative assembly elected by the people. But this new government had hardly begun to function when intervention by the United States in Cuba brought about the Spanish-American War.

In view of this background of political and social conditions after the restoration, the insular opposition to the new law reorganizing elementary education, its execution during the eighteen years of its history and the results achieved in 1898 will be better appreciated.

B. DECRETO ORGÁNICO DE 1880

Opposition to the Decree. The new school law under preparation by General Despujol was published September, 1880, to go into effect October 1 of the same year. It was approved with a few simple changes by the Madrid government on February 5, 1881.¹ No sooner had the decree been published than certain municipalities began to oppose it to the extent of appealing to the throne. The municipalities contended that their rights were infringed upon, that the new decree placed school administration in the hands of the central authority, the Governor General, and practically deprived the municipal authorities of many of the rights that the municipal laws allotted to them, thus checking local initiative.² Chief among the municipalities were San Juan, Ponce, Mayagüez, Cabo-Rujo, San German and Adjuntas. But when the question came up for legal decision the courts ruled that the Governor possessed the authority to intervene in all such matters, and denied the municipalities the rights which the laws gave them. Under the influence of the Governor a fine was inflicted upon the councillors and a public reprimand was published in the official gazette.³

¹Moreno: Decreto Orgánico Vigente, Preámbulo, p. 312.

Moreno: Decreto Orgánico Real Orden de 5 de Febrero de 1881, p. 309.

²Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Carta de Remision al Ministerio, pp. 293-94.

³Moreno: Suspensión de Acuerdos y Multas a los Consejales, Puerto Rico 5 de Enero de 1881, pp. 297-300.

Divisions of Primary Education. The decree divided primary education into elementary and superior.⁴ The first included the following curriculum: Catechism, and elements of sacred history;⁵ reading; writing; elements of Spanish grammar; elements of arithmetic with the legal weights, measures and money; elements of geography and an elementary outline of agriculture, industry and commerce.⁶ Superior instruction embraced a more extensive treatment of the subjects just named, and in addition the following: Elements of history and geography, especially of Spain; elements of geometry with mechanical drawing and surveying; and an elementary outline of physics and natural history adapted in their application to the needs of common life.⁷ In the curriculum of the girls' schools, agriculture, industry and commerce; geometry, mechanical drawing and surveying; physics and natural history were replaced by subjects more appropriate for the sex, namely elementary drawing, designing, needlework, and an elementary course in domestic hygiene.⁸

Classes of Public Schools. Public primary schools were those supported wholly by the towns of the provinces, or those supported in part by public or charitable funds, or other funds destined for public education. The towns were called upon to include in their school budgets teachers' salaries, house rent for schools and for residences of teachers, and school supplies. In schools not supported entirely by the towns the government intervened only by inspection.⁹

Elementary public schools for boys were divided into two classes, elementary schools of the first class, and those of the second class. Superior schools were divided into first and second classes also.¹⁰ Schools of the second class were often promoted to first, so that teachers who were faithful and improved the standards of their schools had an opportunity to have their schools promoted and thus to better themselves financially.¹¹ Girls' elementary schools were also divided

⁴Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, De La Primera Enseñanza, Art. 1. p. 319.

⁵Spanish Constitution, Art. 11: La religión Católica Apostólica Romana es la del Estado. La nación se obliga a mantener el culto y sus ministros. Nadie será molestado en el territorio español por sus opiniones religiosas ni por ejercicios de sus respectivos cultos salvo el respeto debido a la moral cristiana, no se permitirán, sin embargo, otras ceremonias ni manifestaciones públicas que las de la religión del Estado.

⁶Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, De La Primera Enseñanza, Art. 2, p. 319.

⁷*Ibid.*, Art. 3, p. 320.

⁸*Ibid.*, Art. 4, p. 320.

⁹Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, De Las Escuelas Superiores y Elementales, Art. 32,

¹⁰*Ibid.*, Art. 33, p. 341.

¹¹Moreno: Categorías, pp. 343-44; 345-47.

into two classes,¹² while the four superior schools for girls were to be used as model schools for the training of women teachers.¹³

Auxiliary, Rural, Infant and Adult Schools Defined. In addition to the classes of schools named above, there were established auxiliary and rural schools in place of the incomplete schools of the previous decree. Auxiliary schools were those situated in hamlets outside of the larger population centers, and with an attendance of at least twenty pupils. The municipalities supported these schools.¹⁴ Their curriculum embraced the following subjects: Catechism, reading, writing, elements of grammar, arithmetic through common and decimal fractions, and the metric system.¹⁵ In girls' schools sewing was added.¹⁶ Rural schools were those established where there were no groupings of dwellings, with an attendance of at least fifteen pupils.¹⁷ Provision was made for the establishment of infant schools to be taught by the Sisters of Charity, and adult schools.¹⁸ The adult schools were discontinued in 1893, because of their practical failure, and only the San Juan school was left in operation.¹⁹ There were established also prison schools which were also discontinued, due to their failure. Some superior schools were suppressed later, because of lack of a sufficient number of pupils to attend them.²⁰

Private and Domestic Education. Private schools were allowed to be established, provided the director of each school was at least twenty years of age and possessed a legal teaching certificate.²¹ The age ruling was changed in 1895, when any citizen could establish and teach in a private school.²² Parents wishing to prepare their children at home by means of a private tutor were allowed to do so and upon examination the children were admitted to the secondary school. No academic qualifications of any kind were required of private tutors.²³ The wealthy availed themselves of this opportunity to educate their children at home.

Daily Sessions. Elementary, superior and auxiliary schools were

¹²Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 38, p. 347.

¹³*Ibid.*, Art. 39, p. 347.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, Art. 42, p. 348.

¹⁵*Ibid.*, Art. 43, p. 348.

¹⁶*Ibid.*, Art. 44, p. 349.

¹⁷*Ibid.*, Art. 45, p. 349.

¹⁸*Ibid.*, Arts. 45-50, pp. 349-51.

¹⁹Moreno: Supresión de Escuelas, pp. 351-53.

²⁰Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Arts. 51-52, p. 353.

²¹Moreno: Edad para Ejercer el Magisterio, pp. 354-55.

²²Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 53, p. 354.

²³*Ibid.*

to have six hours of school work daily, three in the morning and three in the afternoon.²⁴ Rural schools were to have five hours daily, from ten in the morning to three in the afternoon, in order that poor children might be at liberty to assist their parents in domestic duties and field labor.²⁵ The hours in the rural schools could be changed according to circumstances.²⁶

Compulsory Instruction. Elementary instruction was compulsory from six to twelve years of age, and the decree provided for various kinds of punishment to parents who did not send their children to school. It was impossible to put this provision into operation, owing to the fact that there were not enough public schools for all the children of school age. Moreover, parents did not realize the need of an education and would not co-operate with authorities in sending their children to school. Education was gratuitous only for poor children whose parents had to prove their state of poverty before the children were admitted to the school.²⁸ Under such circumstances it was impossible to have compulsory education. There were many orders issued by the government dictating rules and regulations to carry out this provision of the decree, and stating the punishments to parents who disobeyed the law, but these were merely issued and very seldom applied, as is shown by their frequency, and by the fact that they had no effect on parents who did not send their children to school.²⁹

Report on Attendance. With regard to attendance in the southern district in 1886, Infiesta in his report to the Governor says:

Your Excellency, who is perfectly acquainted with this province, knows better than anybody else the long distance the country children have to go to attend school. They have to cross ravines, rivers and mountains. They are badly nourished and exposed to all the rigors of the climate. They can neither attend school regularly nor receive a solid education.³⁰

I have visited thirty-five municipalities during the rainy season and I know by experience the great difficulties which must be overcome to have good school attendance. There are children who have to travel three miles across torrents and through perilous trails in order to go to school. Together with these natural obstacles go the wretchedly poor condition of the people, and the ignorance of parents, who, not knowing the benefits of an education, resist sending their children to school.³¹

²⁴Moreno: Reglamento de las Escuelas Públicas y Particulares, Art. 12, p. 470.

²⁵Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 48, p. 350.

²⁶Moreno: Horas de Clase, Puerto Rico 30 de Abril, 1880, p. 350.

²⁷Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Arts. 5-6, pp. 321-22.

²⁸Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 7, p. 331.

²⁹Moreno: See pp. 321-31 for many circulars.

³⁰Infiesta, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

³¹*Ibid.*, p. 10-11.

Article 45 of the Organic Decree rules that no rural school should have less than fifteen pupils. Local juntas have not looked after this. Only four children attend the 'Rucio' school of Peñuelas, eight the 'Jobos' school of Guayama, and seven the 'Descalabrados' school of Santa Isabel.³²

Speaking of the attendance in the urban school soon after the decree had been put into operation, the same inspector says:

The municipal judges neglect to prosecute the parents who do not send their children to school, so one finds the proceedings against the parents laid on the shelf. As a result the children began to desert the schools, thus making the work of the teachers fruitless. In Caguas, during my visit, I found 615 proceedings neglected, the schools with only about half of the pupils attending and a general irregularity in attendance. . . After your circular of December 15, 1884, attendance has improved. The average attendance now in the elementary schools is about 70 per cent.³³

Aim and Method of Education. The decree and following rules and regulations placed a great deal of emphasis on the subject matter. An outline of each subject, content to be covered and method of teaching, was dictated by the government. Especial emphasis was placed on religious and moral education.³⁴ All studies were to be pursued by means of text books which in turn had to be authorized by the government and the Church.³⁵ Many texts were authorized and the teachers were given freedom to choose the texts they wished. Most of the texts were in catechetical form, questions and answers on the different subjects. The pupils committed these to memory and recited to the teacher when called upon. There was no co-ordination of schools, much less a graded system, as each teacher opened and conducted his own school absolutely independently of other teachers and other schools. He selected whatever books he pleased from the authorized number and taught what he wished and as he wished. As learning meant committing to memory the text books the teacher selected, a pupil would attend school for say six years, learning all the books of that school until he could repeat them from cover to cover. If at the end of that time he moved or was sent to another school, the pupil would have to start at the beginning again and commit to memory all the texts of the new teacher, for the new teacher was probably using a different set of texts. If a third change in school came, the pupil had to repeat the same process. The teacher did not study nor did he prepare any lessons; it was all done

³²*Ibid.*, p. 31.

³³*Infiesta, op. cit.*, p. 14.

³⁴Moreno: *Reglamento de las Escuelas Públicas y Particulares*, pp. 465-83.

³⁵*Ibid.*, Arts. 18-25, pp. 335-40.

for him in the text book. The end of the school was not the child, but the teacher. The child was a necessary evil in the school.

Method of Teaching. The general method of instruction was the Lancasterian method. The school was divided into sections or classes and advanced pupils were placed as instructors in charge of the different sections. Each section recited to the pupil instructor while the teacher heard the lessons of the instructors after they had finished their different tasks. Individual study by the pupils, whether in school or out of school, was done in a loud voice. The noise of the pupils studying could be heard several hundred feet before one reached the school. Study meant infinite repetition of the questions and answers until one knew them so well that they could be repeated without effort. Often a child might be able to repeat without a mistake the whole of a book, but not know the meaning of any of the questions and answers that he could repeat so well. If the teacher happened to change the form of the question from that in the book, the pupil would frequently be unable to answer.

Report on School Organization. Regarding the organization of the schools in practice, their co-ordination and gradation, Mr. Infiesta reports the following in 1886:

Speaking of the superior schools, that is, the public superior schools, I must call your attention to a matter that practically nullifies their organization, and prevents the schools from carrying out the purpose of the law. According to article 27 of the rules governing elementary schools in towns where there are superior schools, only children from the elementary schools should enter the superior schools, after they know the commandments, parts of the grammar, common fractions, elements of geography, sacred history, and know how to read fluently and to write some. Your Excellency must have observed, specially in Ponce, many children in the superior schools learning to read in the primer, while you must have observed many children well advanced in their studies, attending the elementary schools. A superior school, with many pupils learning the alphabet, as you have observed, and the teacher teaching fourteen subjects, cannot fulfill its mission.³⁶ The superior school of Ponce, in charge of the teacher, D. Francisco Cortés, is an example of the above: On January 1, 1887, it had 59 pupils distributed according to age, thus:

6 of 6 years of age.	5 of 11 years of age.
8 of 7 years of age.	5 of 12 years of age.
10 of 8 years of age.	4 of 13 years of age.
12 of 9 years of age.	4 of 14 years of age. ³⁷
5 of 10 years of age.	

The same statistics show that there was very little difference between the ages of the pupils in the superior schools and those of the elemen-

³⁶Infiesta, *op. cit.*, pp. 17-18. ³⁷*Ibid.*, Second part, Chart No. 1.

tary schools of the first and second classes. Schools were not graded and all schools admitted beginners as well as more advanced pupils. The advanced pupils, as already stated, were used as instructors.

Report on Methods of Teaching. Regarding methods of teaching the same report says the following:

Just as I have called the attention to the progress made in education, I also must say that in most of the schools the teaching of moral and religious education is only a routine. The teacher aims only to develop the memory and to empty the catechism into the brain of the pupil without any explanation whatever, or anything else that will help the pupil to understand, appreciate and feel the severe and sublime maxims of the Gospel. If a question in the text is changed or the teacher appeals to the emotions, the child does not understand. Outside of the memory, exercised to repeat automatically the literal answers to the questions, there is nothing. Of course this cannot be said of all the teachers, for there are some who harmonize well the instruction with moral education, but these are in the minority.³⁸

The inspector would not have been wrong had he affirmed that the same method prevailed in the teaching of most of the other subjects of the curriculum. It cannot be said that there was any system to the schools. It was a personal matter with the teacher as to what he taught, when and how. Some teachers, in spite of lack of system and authority, were skilled and did good work, but the majority neglected their duties.

Examinations and Prizes. General school examinations were held every year.³⁹ The local juntas of public instruction would examine the pupils in all the subjects of the curriculum. Prizes were given to those in the different sections who made the best answers in the opinion of the board of examiners. The distribution of prizes was held in the assembly room of the town hall. It was a very solemn affair, attended by the most prominent citizens and officials of the town. The prize winners from the different schools, both urban and rural, would all assemble to receive their awards for their diligence. At least one pupil from every school was prepared to make an oration. These orations were the basis of rivalry among the schools. At one time the prizes were medals of gold and silver, but during the latter part of the period under consideration, a first prize was one peso, and a second a half peso.

Punishments. Rewards were not the only means to stimulate the heart and intelligence of the pupils. The law provided the following

³⁸Infiesta, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

³⁹Moreno: Reglamento de la Escuelas Públicas y Particulares, Sección Quinta, De los Exámenes Generales de las Escuelas, Arts. 61-66, pp. 481-83.

lawful punishments: 1. To make the child read over and over again the moral principle which he had broken. 2. To make the child copy after school hours a number of lines from the reader or any other book selected by the teacher. 3. To send the pupils out to do errands. 4. To erase from the honor list the name of the offender, in case he was an honor pupil. 5. To make the child stand up or kneel down for a certain number of hours. 6. To keep him in after school hours.⁴⁰ The men teachers, however, did not confine themselves to these. Gross and cruel punishments were strictly prohibited by the law. But teachers did not stop with legally recognized punishment. Sometimes while the child knelt he was made to extend his arms out and hold a certain number of books in each hand, being forced to keep them up, no matter how tired he was. Sometimes the teacher would make the pupil go down on all fours in a corner of the room, place some grass in front of him and make him wear two long paper ears. Another punishment known to exist, although not common, was to have the pupil kneel down on a grater or something that would hurt his knees. The most common punishment was the famous "palmeta" or ferrule. Sometimes a strap was used and applied, generally to the legs or the back of the pupil.

The teacher did not spank; he whipped, and the child bore the signs, showing that nothing had been spared to make him feel the effects. The most grave offenses, worthy of the strap or "palmeta," were lack of preparation or misbehavior. Often parents objected to the teacher who punished too much and the children were taken out of school and placed under the care of a private tutor. It often happened that the big boys fought the teacher, but corporal punishment, as a rule, was popular. The teacher was expected to use it and oftentimes the one who did the most whipping was considered the best teacher.

A teacher's efficiency was judged by the order he kept and by the ability of his pupils to repeat answers to the questions in the books. The end of education was memorizing and the means to that end was the rod, which was applied freely in spite of the law. It is well to remember this practice of Spanish days, for many people today criticize the present school system, because corporal punishment is allowed under certain circumstances and in very rare cases, while in Spanish days it was virtually abolished. However, during the

⁴⁰Moreno: Reglamento de la Escuelas Públicas y Particulares, Sección Quinta, De los Exámenes Generales de las Escuelas, Arts. 53-55, pp. 477-78.

Spanish dominion, although prohibited, corporal punishment was used freely and cruelly; to-day, while permitted, it is very rarely employed.

Teachers' Qualifications. With the exception of foreign language teachers, all teachers had to be Spanish born or naturalized citizens, twenty years of age, of good religious, moral and civic conduct, and the holders of the proper teacher's certificate.⁴¹ Later these qualifications were slightly changed. After 1895, any Spanish citizen of good religious moral and civic conduct, and the possessor of the required certificate was allowed to teach in either public or private schools.⁴² Besides the above, there were certain physical requirements.⁴³

Provision for Normal Schools. In order to train teachers, the decrees provided for the establishment of a normal school for men,⁴⁴ and four model schools for girls.⁴⁵ These four schools were established in San Juan, Ponce, Mayagüez and Humacao. They were the four superior schools for girls established by the decree, and their purpose was to serve as model schools where the women candidates for the teaching profession were trained.⁴⁶ They were supported by the Provincial Deputation and not by municipalities. They served their purpose poorly for ten years and being more or less of a failure the government decided to establish a normal school for women. This school and the normal school for men were not established until 1890.

Certificate to Teach. Until the normal schools were established, there were no special schools for the training of teachers outside of the four schools just mentioned. There were, however, certain academic requirements which candidates for the teacher's certificates had to pursue and be examined in, before receiving the certificate. Four kinds of teachers' certificates were issued, superior, elementary, auxiliary and rural. A rural school certificate was granted to candidates who took an examination in the subjects taught in the auxiliary schools before a committee meeting at the principal city of the department and composed of the president of the local school board, the teacher of the superior school and another teacher. An auxiliary certificate was granted to a candidate who had attended the normal school, if a

⁴¹Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 54. p. 354.

⁴²Moreno: Edad para Ejecutar el Magisterio, Marzo 28, 1895, p. 354-55.

⁴³Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 55 and other circulars, pp. 355-58.

⁴⁴*Ibid.*, Arts. 26-28, pp. 340-41.

⁴⁵*Ibid.*, Art. 31, p. 341.

⁴⁶*Ibid.*, Art. 39, p. 347.

man; or if a woman, a model school, pursuing the curriculum of the auxiliary school.⁴⁷

Elementary certificates were granted to men who had studied in the normal school and had pursued and been examined in the following curriculum:—Reading prose, poetry and manuscript; writing, catechism and elements of sacred history, elements of pedagogy, arithmetic, grammar and composition, mechanical drawing, general geography and geography of Spain, outlines of Spanish history, elements of geometry, elements of agriculture, industry and commerce.⁴⁸ They were also granted to women who had studied in a model school and had pursued and been examined in the same subjects as the men teachers, except that they substituted designing, needlework, and hygiene for geometry and agriculture, industry and commerce.⁴⁹

Superior certificates were granted to men who possessed an elementary certificate and who had pursued and been examined in the following subjects: Catechism and sacred history, writing, pedagogy, arithmetic and algebra, geometry and surveying, mechanical drawing, grammar, geography, general history, physics and natural history. The same requirements were to be fulfilled by women teachers except that they substituted designing and needlework for surveying and mechanical drawing.⁵⁰ Until the normal school for men was established, candidates for the auxiliary school certificate had to practice one year in some school. Those for the elementary certificate had to show that they had pursued the studies outlined in the normal school curriculum. Candidates for the superior certificate were required to practice a year in a superior school.⁵¹ All certificates were to be obtained by examination.

Establishment and Curriculum of Normal School. By the royal decree of June 19, 1890, the Crown authorized the establishment of two normal schools, one for men and another for women.⁵² Each normal school offered a four year course. At the end of the third year the certificate of elementary school teacher was granted, and those wishing to prepare themselves to teach in the superior schools pursued

⁴⁷Moreno: Reglamento para Exámenes de Maestros y Maestras de Instrucción Primaria, Elemental y Superior, Arts. 1-3, pp. 489-90.

⁴⁸*Ibid.*

⁴⁹*Ibid.*, Art. 4.

⁵⁰*Ibid.*, Art. 5.

⁵¹*Ibid.*, Arts. 6-7, p. 490.

⁵²Moreno: Real Decreto de 19 de 1890. Creando Escuelas Normales de Maestros y Maestras en Cuba y Puerto Rico, p. 681.

the studies of the fourth year. The entrance requirement was an elementary school education. The men's normal school offered the following curriculum:

First Year. Catechism and sacred history, orthoepy, writing, Spanish grammar, arithmetic, elements of geometry, elements of the history of Spain, music and singing, practice teaching.

Second Year. Continuation of orthoepy and writing, continuation of grammar and composition, geometry, mechanical drawing and surveying, elements of geography and general history, agriculture, practice teaching.

Third Year. Religion, grammar, outlines of philosophy, physical and natural sciences, industry and commerce, physical education and practice teaching.

Fourth Year. Education, rhetoric and poetics, school legislation, arithmetic and algebra, book-keeping, music, singing, practice teaching. The curriculum of the girls' normal school was the same with additional work in designing, cutting of garments and needlework, while surveying and mechanical drawing was omitted.⁵³

Model Schools. Each normal school had a model school of both elementary and superior grades where the students did their practice teaching. The students attending the normal schools were official students or free. Official students were those who registered, paid the entrance fees, attended school and pursued the regular course of study under the instruction of the faculty; free students required permission to attend classes, but were not obliged to attend. They could stay at home or in a private school and go to the normal schools for examinations only.

Competitive Examinations. After the students finished the normal school course and had been examined in all the subjects of the curriculum, they were ready to take the competitive examinations, held at different dates, which had been previously announced. Regular programs of all the topics on which the students were to be examined were printed and secured by the students. They studied these over and over before the examination, and then when that day arrived they appeared before the board of examiners. Each student was examined individually on the series of topics for the different subjects in the program: the topics selected by chance. Pieces of wood, each one marked with a number, were placed in a box, as many pieces of

⁵³Moreno: Reglamento por que han de regirse las Escuelas Normales de Maestros y maestras de Cuba y Puerto Rico, Arts. 2-7, pp. 694-97.

wood as there were questions in the program. The student drew from the box a certain number of these and answered the questions bearing the same number in the program.⁵⁴

Appointment of Teachers. All appointments of teachers were made by the insular government.⁵⁵ Elementary and superior teachers qualified for appointment by competitive examinations. Auxiliary and rural teachers were appointed to positions without examination until 1892, when they also had to submit to competitive examinations.⁵⁶

However, in 1895, auxiliary and rural school teachers were again exempted from examinations.⁵⁷

Teachers' Salaries. The salaries established by the decree were as follows:

	Boys' Schools	Per Annum
Superior Schools		Pesos
First Class		1200
Second Class		1000
Elementary Schools:		
First Class at San Juan, Ponce, and Mayagües		720
First Class at other towns		600
Second Class at San Juan, Ponce and Mayagüez		540
Second Class at other towns		480
Auxiliary Schools		360
Rural Schools		300 ⁵⁸

	Girls' Schools	
Superior Schools		
At San Juan		900
At Ponce and Mayagüez		800
At Humacao		700
Elementary Schools:		
First Class		500
Second Class		400
Auxiliary Schools		240 ⁵⁹

By order of September 7, 1893, the salaries of women teachers were made the same as those of the men.⁶⁰ The different municipalities were free to increase the salaries of teachers if they wished.⁶¹ Teachers on leave of absence because of illness received a half of

⁵⁴See Appendix III for examples of questions.

⁵⁵Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 59, p. 359. *Ibid.*, Art. 56, p. 358.

⁵⁶Moreno: Oposiciones, Puerto Rico, 28 de Octubre de 1892, p. 366.

⁵⁷Moreno: Provisión de Escuelas, Puerto Rico, 6 de Mayo de 1895, p. 366.

⁵⁸Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 69, p. 374.

⁵⁹Moreno: *Ibid.*, Art. 70, p. 374.

⁶⁰Moreno: Nivelación de Sueldos, Real Orden de 7 de Septiembre de 1893, p. 375.

⁶¹Moreno: Aumentos Voluntarios de sueldos, Real Orden Junio 24, 1884, p. 376.

their salaries, and the substitutes received the other half.⁶² In addition to the salaries the municipalities were obliged to include in their annual budgets a sum for teachers' residences, based on the following scale:

BOYS' SCHOOLS	Pesos a Year for Each School
For Superior Schools of the First Class	500
For Superior Schools of the Second Class	204
For Elementary Schools of the First Class	144
For Elementary Schools of the Second Class	84
For Auxiliary Schools	36
For Rural Schools	24

GIRLS' SCHOOLS	Pesos a Year for Each School
Superior School at San Juan	360
Superior Schools at Mayagüez and Ponce	300
Superior School at Humacao	204
Elementary Schools, First Class	144
Elementary Schools, Second Class	84
Auxiliary Schools	36 ⁶³

Fees. The teachers were permitted to collect fees from pupils who could pay, as only poor pupils were admitted free of charge.⁶⁴ In 1883, pupils fees were fixed on the basis of the following scale:

	Auxiliary & Rural Schools	Elemen- tary Schools	Super- ior Schools
Monthly Fee in Pesos			
Parents paying \$25 direct tax to State25	.50	1.00
Parents paying \$25 to \$50 direct tax to State50	1.00	2.00
Parents paying \$50 to \$100 direct tax to State	1.00	2.00	3.00
Parents paying above \$100 direct tax to State	1.50	3.00	3.50
Employees earning from \$400 to \$100050	1.00	2.00
Employees earning from \$1000 to \$2000	1.00	2.00	3.00
Employees earning above \$2000	1.50	3.00	3.50 ⁶⁵

A year later by royal order, this scale of fees was discontinued, the fees being thereafter settled by agreement between the parents and

⁶²Moreno: Maestros con Licencia, P. R. 29 de Nov. 1878, p. 238. Licencias, Circulares on pages 818-21.

⁶³Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 77, p. 385.

⁶⁴*Ibid.*, Art. 78, p. 390.

⁶⁵Moreno: Retribuciones, Puerto Rico, 10 de Agosto de 1883, p. 390-91.

the teachers.⁶⁶ As the municipalities often held the teachers' salaries in arrears, the fees from the students were very much welcomed by the teachers. All during this period the governors issued circular after circular every year, and some years twice, urging the municipalities to pay their debts to the teachers.⁶⁷ Mr. Infiesta, inspector of the southern district, in his report to the government makes the complaint that while many towns paid their teachers religiously, others did not. He also reported the fact that many teachers had to pay their own house rent from their small salaries.⁶⁸

Teachers' Pensions. Toward the end of the period, in 1894, the Spanish law of 1857, granting old age pensions to teachers, was made applicable to Porto Rico. In case of the death of the teacher, the widow or orphans were pensioned. By this law, normal school teachers, inspectors and teachers of public primary instruction were after twenty, twenty-five, thirty and thirty-five years of service, pensioned the amount of the pension depending on the years of service.⁶⁹

Administration: The Provincial Junta. The administration of education was very little changed by this decree from that of 1865. The Superior Junta of public instruction was now designated as the Provincial Junta. It was composed of the president, who was the Governor, and twelve other members, among whom were the Director of the Civil Institute, the Director of the men's normal school, the inspector of the district, a priest and four heads of families.⁷⁰ A secretary was appointed, not a member of the junta, and a salaried officer.⁷¹ Provincial Junta was the highest educational authority in the Island and had charge of all matters concerning primary education. In practice the Governor controlled this body, all circulars were issued and signed by him, and the Junta was merely an advisory body to the Governor.

The Local Juntas. The local juntas of the 1865 decree retained the same name under a different constitution. They were composed of the mayor of the town as president, a member of the city council, the

⁶⁶Moreno: *Retribuciones*, P. R., 8 de Octubre de 1884, p. 391.

⁶⁷Moreno: See circulars entitled "Pagos" in pages 840 to 851.

⁶⁸Infiesta: *Memoria con los cuadros de enseñanza y estadísticos correspondientes, que sobre el estado de la instrucción primaria, en el distrito de esta Provincia, presenta al Gobierno General de la misma.* Puerto Rico, Tip. El Comercio, Fortaleza 48, 1886, p. 32.

⁶⁹Moreno: *Derechos Pasivos*, Real Decreto de 1 de Febrero de 1894, p. 747-753.

⁷⁰Moreno: *Decreto Orgánico*, Art., 87, p. 399.

⁷¹*Ibid.*, Art., 92, p. 402.

parish priest and three heads of families, where the population of the municipality was ten thousand inhabitants or less. An additional member was allowed for every 4000 inhabitants above this number.⁷²

The duties of the local boards were similar to those of the same bodies in the 1865 decree, special emphasis being placed on their supervisory powers. The supervision of education in the municipalities, whether public or private, was in their hands. They had the power to suspend teachers in public as well as in private schools. As a general rule they did not attend to take their supervisory duties. As a result the circulars sent out by the Governor, urging upon these bodies to perform their duties, were many.⁷³

Mr. Infiesta, in the same report already quoted has the following to say about the local juntas of public instruction:

The present school legislation imposes certain supervisory duties on the local juntas. They do not always fulfill their duties. I am not the only one to say so. The professional press says so every day; Governor Despujol said so; Governor La Portilla said so after his visit through the Island; Governor Vega Inclán said so on April 30, 1883, and your Excellency on April 4, 1884 expressed satisfaction with the work that had been done, and pointed out the things that remained to be done.

Then he goes on and points out that the juntas met once a month, kept their records well and named one of their number to inspect the schools, thus complying with articles 106, 107 and 108 of the Organic Decree. He says:

However, if it is so in the minutes, and if these corporations really take such action, it must be said that their actions are not carried out in practice in most of the towns. With few exceptions the school registers, and especially those of the rural schools, show that the schools are not visited by the juntas. In some of the towns the visits are recorded, but they were never made in school. . . . In places where there are auxiliary committees, it would be better that they be suppressed. The records of these committees in the school registers are ridiculous, with many misspelled words and without any sense. In Ceiba, for example, I noticed that some members of the local juntas, beginning with the only representative of the town council, did not know how to write. In many of the towns the school is never visited except on examination day.⁷⁴

Inspection. Regarding inspection, the decree gave the right of inspection to the government in the following words:

The government will exercise inspection and vigilance over the establishments of instruction, be they public or private, by means of two inspectors, who will be the government's special representatives. The civil authorities will see as one of their

⁷²Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Arts. 96-97, p. 403.

⁷³Moreno: See circulars printed on pages 430-440.

⁷⁴Infiesta, *op. cit.*, pp. 28-29.

important responsibilities that neither in the public nor in the private schools any impediment will be placed in the way of either the Reverend Bishop or his special representative in the government of the diocese, or of the priests, in the practice of their special ministry. They are to watch over the purity of doctrine, faith and customs.⁷⁵

As before, the Island was divided into two districts, north and south, with headquarters in San Juan and Ponce, respectively.⁷⁶ There were thirty-seven towns in the northern district and thirty-two in the southern.⁷⁷ The distribution of the towns in each district was changed slightly, later, but not enough to change the system. The inspectors were appointed by the Governor General. The qualifications for the inspectors were, a normal school education, with five years experience in a public superior school, or eleven years in a private superior school. In case of lack of men with that preparation, inspectors were to be named from among superior teachers with eight years experience.⁷⁸ After April 9, 1892, the inspectors were named by the crown, from among men teachers holding a normal school certificate of either elementary or superior grade.⁷⁹ The remuneration of the inspectors was 1600 pesos salary, 100 pesos for stationery and 500 pesos for travelling expenses per annum.⁸⁰ They were to visit all the town schools and at least half of the rural schools every year.⁸¹ The inspectors were the confidential agents of the government to visit, watch the activities of the schools and report to the government.⁸²

School Buildings. No school buildings were erected during the period. Some of the municipalities bought buildings for school purposes, but very few. The majority of the municipalities rented buildings for schools as well as for teachers' residences. Generally classes were held in the largest room of the teachers residence, called "la sala."

The buildings were all poor and generally not fit for the purpose. Governor General Vega Inclán, in a visit of inspection, found this true. He recommended to the municipalities to buy buildings which

⁷⁵Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Arts. 79-80, p. 392.

⁷⁶*Ibid.*, Art. 81, p. 393.

⁷⁷Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Reglamento de Inspectores Provinciales de Primera Enseñanza, pp. 440-41.

⁷⁸Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 82, p. 393.

⁷⁹Moreno: Inspectores, Real Orden de 9 de Abril de 1892, p. 393-94.

⁸⁰Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Art. 83, p. 394.

⁸¹Moreno: Visitas de Inspección, Puerto Rico. 27 de Abril, 1886, p. 398-99.

⁸²Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Reglamento de Inspectores Provinciales de Primera Enseñanza, pp. 440-49.

were fit to be used as school houses. Calling the attention of the municipalities especially to the rural school buildings, he asked them to rent better buildings even if they had to increase their appropriations for rent.⁸³ In 1888 the government requested the municipalities to make appropriations for school buildings.⁸⁴ The same year the government prepared and issued three plans for school houses but nothing was done either by the municipalities or by the insular government.

In the report already quoted Mr. Infiesta has the following to say about school buildings in the southern district, which is representative of the whole Island at that time. Referring to rural school houses, he says:

The huts set aside as places to instruct the young look more like miserable hog pens than institutions of learning, many of them with yagua and palma floors, narrow and small, without light, without a place to hang a chart or a blackboard. . . . the children crowded like big bundles in a house used for storage the teachers have not enough room to divide the school into sections, nor any opportunity to develop any sort of method, nor is it possible to work in such places with any advantage. Some of these houses are not worth their annual rent. Occasionally a local junta changes a rural school house from one barrio to another, because the owner of the house wants the place vacated. This moving around nullifies the efforts of the teachers and the municipalities.

Regarding the urban school buildings, the inspectors said that the majority were not suitable for school houses.⁸⁵

Supplies and Equipment. As to school supplies, all the municipalities were under the obligation of providing them for the poor children, and the local juntas were the bodies authorized to see the law carried out.⁸⁶ As the municipalities failed to provide the schools with supplies, Governor General Vega Inclán requested them to pay the teachers every month an extra allowance for supplies.⁸⁷

In spite of all this most of the pupils bought their own supplies. Mr. Infiesta reports the condition of school supplies in his district, thus:

The schools are in urgent need of furniture; many do not have a chair for the teacher, nor a crucifix, nor chart, nor clock, nor shelves, nor the tables and benches needed, nor a book-case . . . When I began my work as inspector we had none of the

⁸³Moreno: Instrucción Pública, Abril 30, 1883, p. 329.

⁸⁴Moreno: Proyectos de Edificios para Escuelas, Puerto Rico, Agosto 8, 1888, pp. 387-89.

⁸⁵Infiesta, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

⁸⁶Moreno: Decreto Orgánico, Reglamento para las Juntas Locales de Instrucción, p. 427.

⁸⁷Moreno: Instrucción Pública, Puerto Rico, Abril 30, 1883, p. 330.

furniture we have today, but the government supplied the superior schools with good supplies, distributed maps among the elementary schools, and the rest of the equipment has been supplied by the towns themselves from their small appropriation. . . not all towns show such lack of interest, Ponce, Juana Diaz, Salinas, Maunabo, Caguas, Yauco, Fajardo, Luquillo, Piedras, and others, have spent money in supplies.⁸⁸

Education Under the Autonomous Government. 1898. The Organic Decree of 1880 was in force until February 11, 1898, when the autonomous constitution went into effect, which declared that a colony had full authority to establish its own system of education. At this time the Spanish school law of 1857 went into operation in Porto Rico. The department of education was placed in the hands of Mr. Manuel F. Rossy and Dr. José C. Barbosa, who immediately began to reform education. There was substituted for the Provincial Junta a Council of Public Instruction whose function was to give information and make suggestions in connection with all the questions relating to public schools.

The Council consisted of thirty-six members, divided into three sections, and charged with matters pertaining to primary, secondary and professional education, and belles-lettres. They commenced the necessary statistical work for the projected reform. However, soon dissensions arose among the government officials, the members of the Provincial Junta, and the Council of Public Instruction, to the extent that the latter resigned their positions July 22 of the same year.⁸⁹ By this time the war with the United States was on, and education as well as every other phase of the insular life was in a chaotic condition.

CONDITION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN 1898

The Organic Decree of General Despujol, 1880, was not in force when the United States took possession of the Island, but since the autonomous government had not had time to establish any school organization, what the United States found in 1898 was the fruit of the 1880 decree. The educational conditons in Porto Rico at that time should show what the decree had accomplished. The opinions given here regarding educational conditions in 1898 are either those of Porto Ricans or of committees composed of Porto Ricans and Americans.

Report on How the Political Conditions Reflected on Education. Re-

⁸⁸Infiesta, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

⁸⁹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 137.

garding the political conditions of the period, Mr. Enrique C. Hernandez, Secretary of the Insular Board of Education in 1898, in his report to the President of the same body says:

The political and religious persecution that began in the island upon the restoration of the monarchy and that had such unfortunate results upon public instruction, continued to increase. There was established here a species of political inquisition by a Conservative or unconditional Spanish party, as it was called, in order to distinguish its members from those Porto Ricans who desired to remain under Spanish sovereignty upon conditions that Porto Rico should possess the same rights as the other Spanish provinces. The purpose of this inquisition was to preserve the supremacy of the party in the government and to secure for its members all the positions, so that Porto Ricans were excluded practically from all public offices of importance unless they happened to be members of this party. The same persecutions made themselves felt in school affairs. Teachers whose political or religious ideas differed from those maintained by the party were sooner or later deprived of their schools. As proof of this, and in order that the standpoint of the government may be seen, we copy the following statement of its policy from the reports of one of its inspectors, Don Juan Macho Moreno. . . . 'The mission of an Inspector of primary instruction in these countries distant from the motherland, and influenced by currents of thought, censurable—if we may not apply to them the stronger terms of pernicious—demands, duties and conditions which can only be satisfied completely by those officers who are fully inspired with the fervor of patriotism, who have the strength of will to meet all opposition which their ideals must encounter, able to discover the social wound where it exists, more or less hidden, and to apply to it with all the energy that the gravity of the circumstances demands an effective cauterization. It is the duty of the inspectors to apply all their energy and ability to the task of decapitating this hydra that poisons all its surroundings, and it is the duty of the governor to take the first precautions. In this connection mere verbal expression of unconditional adhesion to our principles is not enough, there must be deeds and actual proofs.'⁹⁰

Report on Administration. Regarding the administration of education, as provided by the Organic Decree of 1880, and as it worked out in practice, the same report says:

If the latter (the 1880 decree) appeared upon the surface to show due deference to local authorities in matters of public instruction, in its practical workings it placed everything in the hands of the governor. As already mentioned, local juntas were composed of the alcade, a municipal councilman, the priest and three heads of families, or more, according to the population of the district. Without reference to the size of the latter, the persons chosen to fill these positions were, as a rule, those who were least eminent for their intelligence and education, and it was not unusual to find members of the local board who knew neither how to read nor how to write. So it happened that the administration of the schools fell practically into the hands of the alcades, the councilman and the priest, or rather into the hands of the first of these, who, as president of the junta of instruction and of the ayuntamiento, the two bodies controlling school matters, possessed practically absolute authority. This

⁹⁰56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 135.

was especially the case where, in many instances, the alcade was appointed by the Governor. The Provincial Junta, whose principal members were officials of the administration, was a bureaucratic body, without any independence or prestige in the minds of the public, and extremely docile to all the orders of the President. Thus it happened that the Governor exercised practically absolute authority in the appointment and dismissal of teachers, in the creation and suspension of additional institutions, and, in a word, in all that referred to public instruction.⁹¹

Report on the Teaching Force. With reference to the teaching personnel, the report says:

If we consider the teaching force, we find as a rule that certificates and appointments were given for political rather than for professional qualifications. In an examination the recommendation of an influential patron held more weight than the merits of an examinee. People fancied that these abuses would be corrected when the normal schools were established, in 1891, but in a short time these too were discredited, and as the number of pupils that entered them was very limited, the examination requirements became more lax and recommendations came to have more and more influence with the teachers. We do not wish to be understood as saying that all teachers were worthless. There were many, as there are at the present time, with real ability and true devotion to their work. But the greater number of them were exactly the reverse. In a report presented to General Eaton the 20th of January, 1899, by a teacher and inspector, Mr. José Francisco Diaz, speaking of the condition of Porto Rican teachers before the occupation of the island by the Americans says: 'We have here, as a rule, good men and women teachers. If there are occasions where they fail to fulfill their duty this is caused by the neglect and disregard which they have suffered. They were not paid, they were not respected or encouraged in their work. They were not provided with means of instruction. Most of them occupied mere huts in place of houses, and, to cap the climax, they were persecuted upon suspicion of political and religious heresy and were not allowed to develop any form of instruction in harmony with the results of scientific study and experience. In this absolute lack of any system, which, so far as the public welfare is concerned does not exist, the teacher naturally has at times deserted his calling, or has failed to pursue it in the right manner. Few occupy themselves in developing the observation and judgment of the child, in training his reason, in guiding his imagination, in cultivating his aesthetic ideal, in forming his character, in a word, in anything that does not have an immediate effect in making him pass his examination'.⁹²

Report on the Normal School. The committee which investigated the work of the normal school for women in 1899 reports:

This school was founded in 1890, and has an attendance of 50 students. For admission there is an examination in the subjects taught in the elementary schools. A course of three years is required for an examination for permission to teach in the elementary schools. The time is chiefly occupied with academic studies and only a limited course is given in methods. A practice school is required by law, but practical training is neglected. A candidate, to obtain a certificate for teaching in an

⁹¹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 134.

⁹²56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 136.

auxiliary school, or rural school, must pass an examination during the months of June or September, in Spanish Grammar, arithmetic, reading, writing and dictation exercises . . . The school is practically without teaching material, there being but a few maps and charts. There is neither laboratory nor library and but few text books or other essentials to school work.⁹³

With reference to the instruction in the normal school, the committee says:

The pupils of this school were taught without books, by lectures, which were dictated one day and recited the next, and by conversation. The reason given for the absence of books was that the girls were too poor to buy them. All the work seemed of the most elementary character. The note-books were very poorly kept, in pencil, and there was no evidence seen that they had ever been corrected. Students attend very irregularly and indeed it would seem that it is not a matter of much importance whether they attend or not, as all in time are graduated. There are some lectures given on pedagogy, but nothing was seen to convince the commission that this school can prepare anyone to teach, even in the most elementary branches.⁹⁴

This commission made no report on the normal school for men, but the same conditions prevailed in this as in the girls' school. The general characteristics of the whole system, if it could be called such, was lack of interest and therefore neglect.

Report on General Educational Conditions. Mr. Enrique C. Hernandez, in his report already referred to, gives a general view of educational conditions in 1898, in the following words:

It is seen that public instruction was in the same position in Porto Rico when Spanish sovereignty ceased that it had been eighteen years ago when the organic decree of 1880 went into effect. The larger number of schools and the larger attendance of pupils indicated in the statistics, signified little when the organization of the schools and the methods of instruction were completely neglected, and there was no provision made for school buildings or for any of the aids necessary to effective instruction. Admission to the public schools, while open to both sexes in the town, was only granted to boys in the country. Co-education was regarded as a very dangerous experiment, and as there was no rural schools for girls, the latter naturally did not participate in the benefits of education. Speaking of the necessity of establishing schools of this character, General Despujol, in one of his letters to the colonial minister, says: 'As a general proposition I favor establishing rural schools for girls. As a rule, population is scattered in remote and inaccessible places without religious instruction or moral restraint, and family unions are formed without the sanction of the sacraments or of the laws, and are of a more or less temporary character; so that it may be said that the family, in our sense of the word, does not exist in the rural districts of Porto Rico. This is, perhaps the principal obstacle to its future progress. It is easy to understand what an influence to the advancement of Christian civilization would be a school established among these girls, who are one

⁹³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 24.

⁹⁴56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 25-26.

time to be the mothers of a new generation. But to have these children attend these distant schools, under conditions now existing, would be, in the opinion of many people whom I have consulted, occasion of greater evil than good, and a detrimental influence on the morals of the community! These same conditions were reported a thousand times during the eighteen years that the decree was in force, and indicate how little real study was given to the question of instruction by the Government, whose main interest was that its statistical reports sent to Madrid should always indicate some increase in the number of pupils and schools. The principal argument against co-education was the great danger that would result from the association of the sexes in the schools and the long distance from the homes of the children to those establishments; but at the same time that the educational administrators presented this argument they recognized the fact that the moral condition of the rural population could hardly be worse than it was then, even though co-education and schools for girls had been established. They never stopped to consider whether co-education and girls' schools might not have diminished the evil that they so severely censured.⁹⁵

Statistical Data for the Period. The statistics available will give a clearer view of conditions during the period under consideration and in 1898. On July 1, 1881, at the beginning of the period, there were 384 schools for boys and 117 for girls, a total of 501 schools. There attended these schools 10,025 boys and 6,095 girls, a total of 24,120. The expense for these schools were, for personnel 191,424 pesos; for supplies, 71,245 pesos, or a total of 262,669 pesos.⁹⁶

On January 1, 1886, there were 408 schools for boys and 127 for girls, making a total of 535 schools. There attended these schools 18,194 boys and 7,183 girls, a total of 25,377 pupils. The expenses were: Personnel, 221,648 pesos; supplies, 88,768 pesos, a total of 310,434 pesos. Besides there were 11 schools for adults, with an attendance of 433 pupils; 38 private schools, with an attendance of 1,670 pupils. The total number of schools, both private and public, was 584 with a total attendance of 27,480 pupils.⁹⁷

On June 30, 1898, there were in existence in Porto Rico 380 public schools for boys, 148 for girls, 1 for adults, and 26 private schools, having an enrollment of 44,861 pupils. The total amount annually expended, including the subsidy granted by the insular government to private schools, was 309,810.75 pesos or \$185,886.45.⁹⁸

Summary. Although these reports present a very dark picture of educational conditions in Porto Rico at the time of the American occupation, and those conditions were the fruits of the 1880 decree,

⁹⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 136-137.

⁹⁶Moreno: Estadística, Puerto Rico, 2 de Julio de 1881.

⁹⁷Infuista, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

⁹⁸War Department, *Report of the Census of Porto Rico*, 1899. p. 72.

in operation for almost twenty years, yet, in evaluating educational progress, conditions before 1880 must be kept in mind as they form the basis for comparison. It must not be forgotten either that Porto Rico was a Spanish colony and that educational conditions could hardly be expected to have been better than in Spain. The tendency of the government reports made at the time of the American occupation is to make a comparison, having in mind conditions in the United States; but Porto Rico was a Spanish colony and not an American colony before 1898 and the traditions of her culture were very different from those of the United States.

In spite of the backward educational conditions presented, a careful perusal of the facts revealed in this period will show distinct educational progress. School organization, poor as it was, with elementary and superior schools overlapping each other, was better than before, for although the decree of 1865 tried to organize the schools, its provisions were not put into operation for any length of time. Interest in education was manifested more than before and more attention was given to the establishment of schools, both urban and rural, as well as to their support.

While school inspection had received very little attention before, and was generally left to the local authorities, during this period special experienced teachers were appointed as school inspectors, who actually inspected the schools and reported to the government. The work of the inspectors left much to be desired, but they did their work as efficiently as their Spanish colleagues in the mother country.

The first and only normal schools in the history of the Island were established during this period, which was a forward step in teacher training. Poor as the training was, it was something which had not been done before, and as good as the training received by the teachers in Spain. Considering their preparation, teachers were as well paid as in Spain and other countries, while the pupils' fees and presents increased their salaries considerably.

Much has been said and written against the efficiency of the teachers before the American occupation, and the major part of that criticism is just, judged from American standards for teachers. But the teachers of the time had no American standards to compete with or live up to, and it must not be forgotten that there were good teachers as well as poor ones.

Unlike today in Porto Rico and in the United States, teaching was a profession and not a stepping stone to something else, often called

“something higher.” Men and women prepared themselves to teach as a life work and became old in the classroom. Educational conditions in 1898, although backward, were as good as in Spain and as good as could be expected in a Spanish colony.

CHAPTER VI

SECONDARY AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION DURING THE SPANISH RÉGIME (1820-1898)

Secondary and Professional Education in 1818. The state of secondary and professional education in 1818 is described by Don Pedro Tomás de Córdoba in the following words:

What is really needed is the Seminary of the Diocese. Porto Rico lacks such an important institution, and her children have to beg for knowledge so necessary to society in other countries. If it were not for the Franciscan and Dominican brethren, who so commendably devote themselves to the instruction of the young, there would be no schools to mold the minds of the young men and to teach them to be men, useful to their country and to the fatherland. Formerly the Porto Rican youth received their education in the universities of Santo Domingo and Carácas, but due to the misfortune these countries have gone through lately, the Porto Ricans have been deprived of this benefit; and although the studies in these universities have been re-established, yet it will be some time before they will have the standard they used to have.¹

Secondary and Professional Education, 1820-1823. With the rise of the Liberals in Spain on March 12, 1820, the schools of the Church lost their government support and were closed, thus leaving Porto Rico without a school where her children could pursue a secondary or professional education. The state of education between 1820 and 1823 is portrayed in the following paragraphs from a report of the San Juan ayuntamiento a few years later, urging the necessity of establishing a good college in the Island.

The creation of the college is necessary, for there has always been a lack of opportunity for study here, there having been no other than that furnished by the convents of Santo Domingo and San Francisco, where only Latin, philosophy and theology were taught. To obtain instruction in other sciences the young men were obliged to attend the university of the Spanish island of Santo Domingo or that of Carácas, which but few were able to do on account of the large expense of travel and living away from their homes.

But the lot of the youths and their affectionate parents was still harder when they

¹de Córdoba, *op. cit.*, p. 320.

found themselves deprived of these unsatisfactory and costly resources through the transfer of Santo Domingo to foreign domination, the peninsula also invaded in 1808, and the province of Carácas overcome by the melancholy and lamentable 19th of April, 1820 . . .

From that time the youth of this island have lamented the loss of all means of education . . . Afterward came the terrible calamity of March 1820 (The Constitutional or Liberal Cortes of the year 1820).

Here the cloisters even were deserted, the classes in Latin, philosophy and theology were ended, and youth bemoaned bitterly its intellectual desolation. Wealthy parents found neither aid nor resource for the education of their children, who remained here isolated and reduced to equality with the unfortunate and helpless. . . . or they found themselves impelled by necessity or unhappy fate to send them to North America to be educated as well as possible, the remedy being worse than the disease itself which they were trying to avoid.²

Educational Agencies. After 1825 the schools were restored to the church orders, which continued their work as before. In the meantime the Economic Society had begun its activities in education, both primary and secondary. These two agencies, the Church and the Economic Society, other private organizations, and the government, were the agencies active in secondary and professional education in Porto Rico during the nineteenth century. To facilitate this study, this chapter will treat the activities of these three agencies under three sections, that is, the activities of the church, private initiative, and government activity.

A. ACTIVITIES OF THE CHURCH

Before the rise of the Liberals in Spain, in 1819, the Franciscan friars founded in their convent in San Juan a chair of theology, which continued until 1839.³ After 1823 they opened their schools again and began to improve them. In January 1825, Vicar-general Andrade founded a Latin school with chairs of Latin, philosophy, moral and dogmatic theology, and civil and canon law.⁴ This school did not last long, for in 1826 the bishop of Porto Rico, Dr. Rodriguez de Olmedo, was appointed to the archbishopric of Cuba, while Dr. Don Pedro Gutierrez de Cos substituted him in the diocese of Porto Rico.

He began immediately to establish a theological seminary and soon merged the chairs of the Latin school into the diocesan seminary, which

²Students who studied in the United States were charged with returning full of radical and pernicious ideas. 56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 112.

³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 111.

⁴There is a difference of opinion as to the date of founding this school and the curriculum it offered. As to the date, two authorities give 1825, while one gives 1824; Brau gives only the following chairs: Philosophy, dogmatic theology and ecclesiastical liturgy. 56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 113.

he established, and which was opened to the public at the beginning of the academic year 1832. In the autumn of that year a building was erected near the episcopal mansion at the cost of 41,000 pesos, to house the seminary. Among the professors in the seminary were two notable Porto Ricans, friar Angel de la Concepcion Vasquez, born in Juncos, who was the first rector of the Seminary and Dr. Juan Francisco Jimenez, a native of Cabo-Rojo.⁵

Although the seminaries in all countries are founded primarily to prepare young men for the priesthood, thus having the stamp of a professional school, yet they are in fact secondary schools as well as professional schools. The age of entrance at the seminary at San Juan was twelve years; the child pursued a preparatory course before he entered into the studies of the priesthood. Many boys who entered the seminary left at the end of their preparatory course, not wishing to continue the clerical profession; hence many professional men received their preparation for the university at the diocesan seminary.

Los Escolapios. In 1837 the Escolapian Brethren, (Escolapios), a teaching order of the Church, opened in San Juan a college called "Liceo de San Juan" or San Juan Lyceum, which was inaugurated with marked enthusiasm. The college received both boarding and day students, thus giving an opportunity to people outside of San Juan to send their children to this college and be cared for by the priests. It offered courses in primary and secondary education. The secondary curriculum embraced the following subjects: Elementary algebra and geometry, geography, Latin, rhetoric, French, Italian, drawing, music, surveying and commercial arithmetic.

The College extended its influence and opened another "liceo" in San Juan, and still another in Mayagüez.⁶ This order of the Church was active all through the century and toward the end received considerable material help from the government. In 1895 it opened a school in Santurce, under the name of "Escuelas Pias," in the building formerly occupied by the Jesuit fathers. They received an appropriation from the government of 12,940 pesos per annum and taught the primary and secondary subjects.⁷

Cooperative Activities of Church and Government. The activities of the religious orders continued all during the century; such activities, however, are so mingled with the official activities of the government

⁵Brau, *op. cit.*, p. 243. ⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 114.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 140.

that it seems more logical to consider them under the section on government initiative, as the recognition and subsidy from the government made them more efficient and broadened their usefulness. There is another institution, which although subsidized by the government to the extent of 3000 pesos a year, had its sphere of action primarily within the Church and should be considered in this section. It was the College of the Mothers of the Sacred Heart of Jesus, a school for girls, opened in 1880, and located in Santurce in a building constructed especially for its use.

General Information About the Church Schools. Some information of 1895 is available regarding the two preceding schools. The director of the Institute of Secondary Education, in the annual report of that institution, says of the Escolapian Brethren:

The men who make up this religious order by virtue of their moderate customs, excessive modesty and absolute divorce from civil and political strife, have deserved always the consideration of our governments, to the extent that when in 1834 the mob desecrated the convents in Madrid, and in some of the provinces, and in 1835 the government decreed the expulsion of the regular clergy, the only religious order that deserved the respect of these, was that of the 'Escuelas Pias.'

Referring to this institution as well as to that of the Sisters, he said:

Santurce, the most favored barrio of this capital, counts today, thanks to the magnanimity of Providence, with two colleges; the college of the Mothers of the Sacred Heart of Jesus, where our daughters acquire sound instruction, based on the principles of religion and the family, and that of the Escolapian Brethren, where our children will receive physical, intellectual and religious and moral education, equal to that given under modern methods of teaching in the most advanced countries.*

B. PRIVATE INITIATIVE

All through the century there were private schools about which little is known. Wealthy parents kept private tutors for their children or sent them to Cuba, Spain, and other parts of Europe, and even to the United States, to pursue secondary and university studies.

Private Educational Agencies. When the private educational activities are considered, the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country stands out more prominently than any other corporation, society or individual, for it was this society (the agency) which gave

*Instituto de Segunda Enseñanza de Puerto Rico. Memoria del curso de 1894-1895, leída en la solemne apertura del curso de 1895 a 1896, por Don Santiago Hita y Comas, Catedrático numerario y Secretario, Precedida del discurso leído en dicho acto por Don Jaime Comas y Muntaner, Catedrático Numerario y Director del Instituto, San Juan, P. R. Tip. Boletín Mercantil, 1896, p. 3.

inspiration and life to every educational movement during the major part of the nineteenth century, and it was this society that contributed most towards improving education, not only by its activities, but also by its moral support of everything which aimed to lift the moral and intellectual level of the people of the Island.

However, there were other private agencies which must be mentioned in a study of secondary and professional education. These are:—The Economic Board of Public Works and Commerce (*Junta Económica de Fomento y Comercio*), and the activities of the Athenaeum of Porto Rico (*El Ateneo de Puerto Rico*). Private institutions allied with the Institute of Secondary Education will be considered in relation to that institution.

Activities of the Economic Society in Secondary Education. The origin of the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country, as well as its activities before 1820, have already been mentioned in Chapter II. Although it had a program, it did not accomplish much, owing to the political conditions at that time. It began its activities during the government of the Liberals, when Porto Rico became destitute of any means of education. In 1822 it established chairs of mathematics, drawing and grammar; in 1823 a chair of jurisprudence, and in 1824 another chair of grammar. The chairs of mathematics and drawing continued for a long time; not so the others, which were revived from time to time, but were not as constant in their success as were the first two.⁹

El Padre Rufo. In the latter part of the year 1832 Father Rufo Manuel Fernandez was appointed canon of the San Juan cathedral. "El Padre Rufo," as he was called by his pupils, admirers and friends, was professor of experimental physics in the University of Santiago, Santiago, Spain, when the absolutist reaction of 1823 persecuted all those who had taken part directly or indirectly in the revolutionary movement. Because of his political and scientific ideas, Padre Rufo was a victim of the reaction and was left without his professorship. He was persecuted, imprisoned, and wandered about for many years until 1832, when he was sent to Porto Rico. As soon as he arrived he surrounded himself with youths whom he initiated in the natural sciences. He sent to foreign countries for the necessary apparatus for a physical and chemical laboratory. The Economic Society availed itself of the opportunity and encouraged and supported Padre Rufo in his work. Under the protection of the society he labored for many

⁹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 113.

years in the Island, contributed a great deal to education, inspired many young men to pursue a higher education, guiding them in their pursuits.¹⁰ Mr. Enrique C. Hernandez, already quoted, says the following about Padre Rufo and his work:

A man of vast knowledge and unlimited love of education, to which he consecrated his life and his money; a broad mind, in which the liberal ideas of his epoch germinated quickly; a heart always open to whatever signified progress and aid for the destitute.¹¹

In 1844, when the Count of Mirasol came to the Island, as its Governor General, the Economic Society was at the height of its usefulness. To the chairs of mathematics and drawing already mentioned it had added several others in the course of the twenty years, and at this time it offered the following course: Arithmetic, algebra, elementary geography, drawing, French, English, rhetoric, geography, physical chemistry and commercial arithmetic. The Diocesean Seminary at this time was run down, while the courses of the Economic Society were most popular and successful. The Society was very much in need of adequate quarters to hold its classes, so in 1843 the Seminary and the Economic Society were authorized to unite. The Society held its classes on the lower floor of the Seminary building and was attended by some of the Seminary students,¹² in spite of the fact that the ecclesiastical chapter had already pronounced its anathema on the study of science.

Attempts to Establish a College. Father Rufo recommended to the Economic Society the establishment of a college in the Island, where university studies might be pursued. The Count of Mirasol received the idea with much enthusiasm, and in June 27, 1844, the Society considered the project in one of its sessions. It was decided to establish a college, to be called the Central College. As there were no means to establish and maintain such an institution, a popular subscription was opened by the Governor General, which amounted to 23,796 pesos, of which 8,659 were collected the following year, and the Economic Society offered to contribute 1,600 pesos annually toward its maintenance.

There were no teachers for the college, so a member of the Economic Society, Don Florentino Cumbernat, proposed that the Society should send young men to Europe to study agronomy on

¹⁰Figuerola, S., *Ensayo Biográfico de los que mas han contribuido al progreso de Puerto Rico*, pp. 127-36.

¹¹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 114.

¹²56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 115. Also compare Elzaburu, *op. cit.*, pp. 16-17.

condition that on their return they should teach in the college. Father Rufo promised to send and support his two best pupils; one of them was to study new methods of teaching in Spain, France and Belgium, and the other the natural sciences. Early in 1846, four young men set out for Spain, Eduardo Micauet, Julian Nuñez, José Julian Acosta, and Román Baldorioty de Castro. The first two died in Madrid soon after their arrival and the other two returned to the Island in 1852 and began work for the welfare of their fellow citizens. This was the only practical result of the movement toward the establishment of the college, for the idea of the college died out, and in 1848 the money collected was returned to the subscribers.¹³

Petition for Secondary Education and Results. In 1846 the Economic Society petitioned the government to establish at its own expense the studies of secondary education as in Spain. The report of the Attorney General the following year shows what became of the petition:

On the 10th of September, 1846, the subscriber had the honor of giving his opinion to the ex-Señor Captain General, Count of Mirasol. . . . He thought that there were great difficulties in the way of giving the necessary breadth to instruction and that new literary establishments should not be considered, although primary instruction should be provided, and we should try to give the natives of the island teaching auxiliary to commerce and agriculture. Today he will add that it should not be forgotten that in this capital there is a seminary (Consiliar) where, besides the instruction especially pertaining to this institution, they teach mathematics, drawing, the French and English languages, physics and chemistry, whose professors are paid by the Economic Society of the Friends of the Country. This establishment, properly organized, would satisfy the necessities of the epoch very well, without at present going to the expense of any others, which could not be sustained, owing to the want of necessary means. Therefore, primary instruction and a part of the branches of secondary instruction should be the only basis of any plan of studies which may be formed.¹⁴

The Jesuits. The Economic Society continued its classes in the lower floor of the Diocesean Seminary until 1858, when the Jesuits took charge of secondary education in the Island. The influence of the Jesuits began to spread more and more, and little by little the professors of the Seminary and the teachers of the Economic Society¹⁵ were turned out of the Seminary building. As the work of the Jesuits began to supply the needs of secondary education, the work of the Economic Society began to decline. However, it continued its work of supporting the activities it had already begun, and gave advice concerning educational policies. In its last years, toward the end of

¹³56th Cong. S. D. 363, pp. 115-16; Brau, *op. cit.*, p. 252.

¹⁴56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 116. ¹⁵*Ibid.*, p. 122.

the Spanish dominion, it established various free courses, among them book-keeping and other studies required of naval machinists.¹⁶

Asociación de Damas para La Instrucción de la Mujer. In 1886 there was a movement among some influential women to establish an association for the education of women. The association was formed, with the following aim: "To provide the daughters of poor families, or moderately situated families, who wish an education, the means to acquire it, leading toward a profession such as teachers in public or private schools."¹⁷ After the adoption of a constitution the matter was dropped.

La Sociedad Protectora de la Inteligencia. Although Porto Rico never had a university, yet all through its history university courses had been demanded by those who were not able to send their children to the Spanish universities. The chief reason the government gave against the establishment of such an institution was lack of funds. As a refutation to this argument, in 1879 the physicians, lawyers and pharmacists of the Island petitioned the government at Madrid for authority to establish a university, offering their services to teach gratuitously. The request was refused.¹⁸ Those interested in the secondary and higher education of the youth continued their efforts and founded in 1880 "La Sociedad Protectora de la Inteligencia," The Society for the Protection of the Intelligence. This society continued its activities until secondary and higher education was provided by the government of the United States. During the years of its existence it provided means for many young men to secure a secondary and higher education in either the United States or Europe.¹⁹

Attempt to Establish University Studies. The efforts to establish university studies continued and in April, 1887, the matter was considered by the Provincial Deputation, the members of which, after long discussion and debate, ended with the following resolution: This body will "remind the Supreme Government that it should act promptly on the petition to establish a university in the island."²⁰ The same year there was a movement to establish a private university allied to the university of Havana, that is, the students were to receive their instruction in the Island, but as registered students of the University of Havana, and were to go there to be examined. As

¹⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 140.

¹⁷*Reglamento de la Asociación de Damas para la Instrucción de la Mujer*, p. 5.

¹⁸56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 140-41. ¹⁹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 141.

²⁰Elzaburu, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-28.

there was no place to hold the classes, Don Manuel Elzaburu, President of the Porto Rican Atheneum, proposed that this institution be made the center of the university studies.²¹

El Ateneo. The Atheneum is a scientific-literary society composed of members from the intellectual class. It is a center of culture where conferences and lectures are given and every effort made for the advancement of learning. The Porto Rican Atheneum was founded in 1876 and from its beginning it has labored for the intellectual progress of the Island, supported several chairs of learning, opened its hall to all persons able and willing to give public lectures, and has held annual scientific and literary contests.

University Studies in the Atheneum. The proposal of the President of the Atheneum to establish university studies within its walls was accepted. The officers drew up a plan as a basis to be followed and sent it to Madrid for the approval of the Central Government.²² The government offered to pay the travelling expenses of a committee of professors from the University of Havana to come to Porto Rico to examine the students, thus facilitating matters still more.²³ The university studies under the official name of Institution of Higher Studies were begun in the Atheneum at the beginning of the academic year 1888-1889.²⁴

The inauguration took place October 10, 1888, with an address by the president of the Atheneum. Thirty-three students registered the

²¹Elzaburu, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

²²*Ibid.*, p. 30.

²³*Ibid.*, p. 32.

²⁴*Faculty of Philosophy and Letters:*

Metaphysics: Don Julio Ma. Padilla, Licentiate in Laws and Philosophy and Letters.

Universal History: Don José Julian Acosta, Licentiate in Sciences.

General Literature: Don Alberto Regulez y Sanz del Rio, Doctor of Philosophy and Letters.

Greek Language: Don Enrique Alvarez Perez, Licentiate in Philosophy and Letters.
Faculty of Laws.

Metaphysics: Sr. Padilla.

Spanish and General Literature: Dr. Regulez.

Critical History of Spain: Don Manuel Tenés, Licentiate in Philosophy and Letters.
Faculty of Medicine.

Advanced Physics: Don Jaime Anunexi, Industrial Engineer.

General Chemistry: Don José de Jesus Tizol, Doctor of Medicine and Surgery.

Mineralogy and Botany: Don Agustin Stahl, Doctor of Medicine and Surgery.

Zoology: Dr. Stahl.

Faculty of Sciences.

Mathematical Analysis: Don Juan José Potous, Colonel (retired) of Inf.

Geometry: Don Juan B. Rodriguez, Civil Engineer.

General Chemistry: Dr. Tizol.

Mineralogy and Botany: Dr. Stahl.

Languages

French: Don Leonides Villalón.

German: Dr. Stahl. Elzaburu, *op. cit.*, pp. 44-46.

first year in the different faculties, and twenty-two in the second year. The university functioned for two years offering university work, but as it proved financially burdensome to the government to bring professors from Havana to examine students and as there were also many unanticipated expenses, it was found necessary to confine the instruction to the secondary school subjects preparatory to admission to the University of Havana. After the academic year 1890-1891, the students pursued the secondary subjects and the government sent them to Havana to be examined. Since there were at this time the official Institute of Secondary Education and many other private secondary schools, these courses of the Atheneum in the secondary school subjects were not needed; as a result interest began to decline and the Institution of Higher Studies met a natural death. The most valuable and practical course offered by the Atheneum was one for midwives, conducted by Doctors Hernandez, Barbosa and Tizol.²⁵

C. GOVERNMENT ACTIVITIES

Belatedness of Government Activities. When it comes to government activity in secondary and professional education, the first thing noted is its belatedness. Attention has already been called to the efforts on the part of citizens of the Island ever since the middle of the eighteenth century, to establish a university or university studies. Refusal from the Madrid government was the answer to the petitions of the islanders. At last, in 1840, by royal order, the government authorized the establishment of classes in law. On the fourth of September of the same year, the Governor General wrote the Lawyers Association for information on the subjects which were to be taught and the text books needed. Examinations were held the next year, and at least one, Don Benito Alonzo Diaz Perez, was authorized to practice law, as he was admitted to the Porto Rican bar, May 27, 1841.²⁶ Very little is known of the later history of these classes and like other movements of the same nature, it passed away unnoticed.

Royal Sub-delegation of Pharmacy. It was not so, however, with the faculty of pharmacy, established in 1841, by the Royal Sub-delegation of Pharmacy. This faculty continued its work until December 1, 1898, when by order of the American Military Governor, it was abolished. The work of this body was confined mainly to examining candidates of pharmacy. The candidates generally studied

²⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 141.

²⁶Elzaburu, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

by themselves or with some pharmacist working in the drug store, and thus received practical training. When they were ready for examination they appeared before the sub-delegation of pharmacy. Many young men thus prepared themselves at home for their life work.²⁷

Government Recognition of Church School. The next government move was for secondary education, May 3, 1851. By royal order, the government authorized the Seminary of the diocese to grant the degree of bachelor of philosophy upon the completion of a secondary course of study equal to that required in Spain.²⁸

The Seminary was not prospering and something had to be done to save it. The authority of the government to grant degrees did not help very much, and the studies offered by the Economic Society proved more popular with the youth than those of the Seminary. A step forward was taken when the Jesuits were authorized to establish a secondary school in connection with the Seminary in 1858. One of the reasons for the establishment of these secondary studies was "to prevent the young men from going to the United States to secure their education, on account of the radical and pernicious ideas that they brought back with them."²⁹

The Jesuits. The support of the Jesuit school is clearly set forth in the following paragraph:

Convinced of the feasibility and immediate necessity of establishing a secondary institute organized with the courses now required in Spain, in order that it may qualify students for the universities and institutions of the Kingdom, we believe that there is no measure more proper to secure this result than to found a Jesuit college to take supervision of such instruction, to be supported from the funds realized from the lease of the property of the monastic orders which is now at the disposal of the royal treasury, and with the endowments for masses and anniversaries, and for the support of shrines and other pious objects which have accrued to the benefit of the religious corporations of Santo Domingo and San Francisco.³⁰

Thus was secondary education officially established, but it must be kept in mind that it was official because it was recognized by the government, but the administration of the school and the teachers were under the Jesuits and therefore a Church school. However, the young men of the Island had a place to go to school and their work was as valid as that of the state secondary schools.

The Jesuits were allowed to use the Seminary building, together with the Seminary and the Economic Society. They became stronger

²⁷*Ibid.*, p. 21.

²⁹*Ibid.*, p. 122.

²⁸56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 121.

³⁰*Ibid.*

and stronger, began to gain the confidence of the people, their students seemed to get results, and soon they became the teachers of the best young men, for the boys that went to the Jesuits as students were from the best homes of the Island and from the moderately or well to do rather than from the poorer classes.

As the Jesuits progressed the Economic Society began to decline, and even the doctors of the Seminary, the teachers of theology, were obliged to give up their classrooms to the new teachers, who remained masters of the situation, settled in the building of the Seminary, and remained there with much success until 1878, when the insular government built for them a new building in Santurce.³¹ Their success was constant except during the period of the Republic, when they met with reverses from the Government, but this was not due to the lack of efficiency or effort but to political conditions. The Jesuits were the first to organize secondary education in the Island on a stable basis; they were the first to have a definite program for secondary education, they were the first to provide teachers especially prepared for their work, and who devoted all of their time to the children; they were the first who made teaching and nothing else their business, hence their success.

Sporadic Activities of the Government. From 1852 to 1860 there was a movement on the part of the government to establish a technical school. Although the school was needed, the purpose was to create positions for José Julian Acosta and Román Baldorioty de Castro, the two young men who had studied abroad and whom the government had promised to employ at the completion of their university course and return to the Island. As the young men returned from Spain and there was nothing for them to do, since the proposed Central College never materialized, the Governor General ordered the establishment and support of chairs in chemistry and mechanic arts, to be filled by the two young men concerned and to be the nucleus for an Industrial School. The following year they also taught classes in commercial and agricultural geography and botany, which were to be paid by the Economic Society and by the Board of Public Works and Commerce of San Juan (Junta de Fomento y Comercio). This board also planned to add courses in agriculture and commerce.³²

In 1857, the Madrid Government ordered the establishment of a special school of surveying and architecture, and it was thought ad-

³¹*Ibid.*

³²*Ibid.*, pp. 122-23.

visible to gather all the scattered efforts of individuals and societies to make one good school. At last in 1860 a project was adopted for the establishment of such a school but there were not enough funds to support it, nor was there a building to house it. The project was abandoned as impracticable, but it was recommended to continue the classes in agriculture, commerce, navigation and surveying. The report was submitted to the provincial and Madrid governments, but the negotiations ended and no school was founded.³³

Escuela Filotécnica. In the meantime Acosta and Baldorioty de Castro continued their activities in behalf of the moral and intellectual uplift of the people, but the political conditions of the time required much of their attention and they could not devote much time to teaching. After the restoration, when political conditions were quieter, in 1878 Baldorioty de Castro tried to found a school in Mayagüez under the name of "Escuela Filotécnica." His aim was to establish a regular primary superior school, but with the privilege to make his own curriculum, which was more secondary than primary. After much correspondence and arguments pro and con, he was denied permission to establish the school.³⁴

Secondary Education During the Period of Political Unrest. The Civil Institute of 1873, established during the Republic, had a short life, not having time to instruct its pupils one whole year before General Sanz suppressed it. A secondary school after the type of those in Spain was not founded permanently until 1882, when the Institute of Secondary Education was founded, upon the model and upon the same basis as the Spanish institutions of the same category. In the meantime the Jesuits were in charge of secondary education in the Island, but their conflicts with the Liberals during the last two decades had hampered their popularity and had built a breach between them which widened more and more as the people of Porto Rico struggled for political independence. The need of an official institution for the province and separated from the Church, was evident.

Institute of Secondary Instruction. The Civil Provincial Institute of Secondary Instruction was founded by royal order, October 20, 1882, when the Governor General received a cable from the Minister of Ultramar, authorizing the opening of the school at the beginning of the month of November of the same year, and further authorizing the Governor to appoint temporarily the professors so that classes

³³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 123.

³⁴Moreno: pp. 239-43.

might begin at once.³⁵ The establishment and opening of the Institute was received with a great deal of enthusiasm by all the people. Dr. Ferrer describes the enthusiasm that attended the foundation of such an institution in the following words:

The sentiment with which the establishment of the institute was received in our country, always eager for progress and devoted to culture and enlightenment, was manifested by the general enthusiasm with which it was received, and still more by the large number of students who flocked to the capital from all parts of the island to take advantage of the opportunities that it offered for higher instruction than before was known.³⁶

Courses of Study. Pupils entering the Institute had to be examined in the subjects of the elementary school as outlined in the Organic Decree of 1880.³⁷ Thus the student was about ten years old when he entered the Institute. The regular course was four years.³⁸ The following was the official course of study: Latin, Spanish, Rhetoric and Poetics; Geography; History of Spain; General History; Psychology; Logic and Ethics; Arithmetic and Algebra; Geometry and Trigonometry; Physics and Chemistry; Natural History and Agriculture; French, English and German.³⁹ A student finishing the official course of study received the degree of Bachelor of Arts and was ready to enter the university for professional study.

During the years that the Institute functioned it developed a second curriculum which was added to it as other schools failed. By the year 1895 it was offering a special curriculum entitled "Estudios de Aplicacion," that is, practical studies. The following course of study was offered: Business Arithmetic and Bookkeeping; Commercial Geography and Statistics; Political Economy and Business Legislation, practical exercises on commercial transactions; Applied Chemistry; Industrial Mechanics; Drawing.⁴⁰ This course was patronized by very few students as the learned professions were the most popular among the educated classes. In the year 1894-95, only thirteen students pursued this course of study.⁴¹ It was a four year course and graduates received diplomas in the following professions: Commercial Expert, Mechanical Expert and Chemical Expert.⁴²

³⁵*Proyecto del Reglamento del Instituto Civil Provincial y Colegios Privados de Segunda Enseñanza de la Isla de Puerto Rico*, p. 1.

³⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 138.

³⁷*Proyecto*: Art. 90, p. 22.

³⁸The curriculum was changed later to a five year course, since in 1898 the course comprised five years. See 56th Cong. S. D. 363, pp. 22, 23.

³⁹*Instituto de Segunda Enseñanza de Puerto Rico, Memoria del curso de 1894-1895*, p. 38.

⁴⁰*Memoria*, 1894-1895, p. 38.

⁴¹*Ibid.*, pp. 36-37.

⁴²*Proyecto*, *op. cit.*, Arts. 169-170, pp. 40-41.

Fees. Each student taking the entrance examinations paid an entrance fee of two and a half pesos. The total amount of fees was distributed in equal parts among the examiners.⁴³ At the beginning of the year all the students paid a registration fee.⁴⁴ At the end of the year each student paid a fee of two and a half pesos for each subject he was examined in,⁴⁵ and on graduation all candidates for the B.A. degree paid twenty-five pesos for their diplomas and two and a half pesos for their expenses. Candidates for the technical diplomas paid thirty-seven and a half pesos for the diploma and two and a half pesos for their expenses. A small number of honored students were given free tuition.⁴⁶

Teachers. The first teachers appointed were all Porto Ricans who served temporarily until the regular professors arrived from Spain, when all the faculty became entirely Spanish, with the exception of one member, who was a Cuban. All the teachers had to be university graduates. The first director of the Institute was Don José Julian Acosta, who acted in that capacity until June 24, 1884, when he resigned. This worthy Porto Rican, one of the best minds Porto Rico has ever produced, served later in the Institute as assistant professor of agriculture until his death, August 26, 1891.⁴⁷ The salaries of the professors were 1500 pesos a year and those of the assistant professors 750 pesos.⁴⁸

Financial Support. The school was supported by the provincial government from the insular revenues until 1891 when the central government assumed the responsibility of its support. When the Island was given autonomous government in 1898, it was again supported by the provincial government.⁴⁹

Accredited Institutions. The Constitution of the Institute provided for a credit system of private institutions of secondary education, several of which were allied to the official Institute. The Institute credited also work done at home under private tutors. The Director of the Institute was superintendent of all schools allied to the official school, and he appointed a board of examiners to go about to the different towns to examine pupils of private schools, or who studied at home. All rules and regulations regarding studies had to be complied with by all students, whether private or official.

It is a known fact that the aim of the private schools or tutors was

⁴³*Ibid.*, Arts. 90, p. 22.

⁴⁴*Ibid.*, Arts. 112, p. 28.

⁴⁵Memoria, 1894-1895: p. 64.

⁴⁶*Ibid.*, Arts. 58-59, p. 16; 56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 139.

⁴⁷*Ibid.*, Arts. 99 to 101.

⁴⁸*Ibid.*, Arts. 173, p. 41.

⁴⁹Proyecto, *op. cit.*, Art. 25, p. 9.

not to educate, but to prepare their students to pass the official examinations, making education mostly a matter of cramming. The directors of private schools exerted a great deal of influence over the institute professors in order that their pupils might pass the examinations. The professors were also bothered with all sorts of recommendations from the parents of children who used their influential friends in order that their children might pass the tests. The institutions recognized by the official school were the following: The Free Institution of Public Instruction, San Juan; Central College, Ponce; The College of the Paulist Fathers, Ponce; El Divino Maestro, Ponce; El Divino Maestro, San German; Lyceum of Mayagüez; Lyceum of Guayama; The Jesuit College, Santurce; San Juan Bautista, San Juan.⁵⁰ At the beginning the Institute was very popular, but later the professors were charged with political intrigue and scheming for personal profit. At the same time private schools and church schools were founded to prepare students for the official examinations. As a result the Institute maintained its own for the first ten years, but after that began to decline, while the enrollment of the private schools increased.⁵¹

Efforts to Establish Professional and Trade Schools. There were other efforts on the part of the Government and the municipality of San Juan which should be mentioned in this chapter. In 1883 there was established in San Juan a professional school for the preparation of surveyors, builders, commercial and industrial agents, and engineers. Few students patronized this schools and it had a very short life. The studies were incorporated into the technical courses of the Institute.⁵² In 1886, the city of San Juan established a trade school, the object of which was to provide an opportunity for workmen and others to acquire a broader and more scientific knowledge of their particular arts and trades. The school was also closed for lack of popular interest and pupils to attend it.⁵³

In 1896 another school for the purpose of instructing workmen was established. The workmen were taught reading and writing, while popular lectures, mostly civic, were given for the benefit of all those who desired to attend. The lectures were given by prominent citizens, mostly of San Juan, on the following topics: History of Spain, Political Economy, Popular Law, Talks on the Works of Samuel

⁵⁰Memoria, 1894-1895. *Op. cit.*, pp. 67-68. 56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 140.

⁵¹Compare Appendix V.

⁵²56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 143.

⁵³*Ibid.*, p. 139.

Smiles, Geography of Porto Rico, and Practical Ethics. Many workmen attended the lectures.⁵⁴ In 1896 the Provincial Deputation considered the establishment of a trade school in the orphan asylum. It ordered equipment from Europe and opened the school which functioned until the United States took possession.⁵⁵

D. CONDITIONS OF SECONDARY AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN 1898

What the United States Found in 1898, and Reports. Having considered the chief movements and institutions in secondary and professional education, it remains now to see what the United States found in secondary and professional education in 1898, when she took possession of the Island. Besides the normal schools the United States found the trade school and the Institute of Secondary Instruction. The committee appointed to inspect these institutions was composed of the following men: Dr. Manuel F. Rossy, Major T. Van R. Hoff, Dr. Francisco del Valle Atilas, and Dr. George G. Groff, two of whom were Americans and two Porto Ricans. This committee called on expert aid when needed. The committee reported in part as follows:

Location and Cost of Buildings. The institute at present has no building of its own. Some classes are held in the Weather Bureau Building, some in the Athenaeum, some over a drug store on the Plaza, and others in the houses of the professors The industrial school is in buildings forming a portion of the Asilo de Beneficencia. The cost of the buildings cannot be given and it is immaterial since, excepting those occupied by the industrial school, their use is only temporary.⁵⁶

Industrial School. The industrial school is in the same building as the orphan school and insane asylum. It is supplied with appliances and machinery for instruction in the trades. There are shops for instruction in typesetting, carpentry, mechanics, bookbinding, tailoring, chemical industries, shoemaking, masonry, model-making, sculpture, lithography, and the manufacture of tobacco. There was a branch of industrial training for women in another part of the city where nightly instruction was furnished in drawing. Boys were admitted to the industrial school after examination on the subjects of the elementary school instruction and could continue their studies, four, five or six years, according to the grade undertaken. The annual expenses are reported as \$17,857. Total attendance for 1897 and 1898 was 312. This useful institution was sometimes suspended for lack of funds. Tuition was free, and there was no matriculation or other fee, the cost being borne wholly by the colonial assembly, (provincial deputation).⁵⁷

Methods of Instruction. In the institute the methods were investigated by Professor J. G. Meyers, a former instructor in the Massachusetts Institute of Tech-

⁵⁴*Ibid.*, 143.

⁵⁶*Ibid.*, p. 22.

⁵⁵*Ibid.*, p. 140.

⁵⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 24-25.

nology, and by Dr. Ward, of the New York *Independent*. Professor Meyers found the instruction to be by lectures, given to boys who could not enter any college in the United States. No text books were used. Each professor lectured one hour each day. The work seemed to be of an exceedingly elementary character, and the professors in their lectures rambled from subject to subject, showing no evidence of preparation. Mr. Ward testified that the instruction was as nearly worthless as possible. The professor of English was absent on each of the times that Professor Meyers visited his class. The summary of Professor Meyer's report is herein given. . . . The peculiar features of the Institute de segunda Enseñanza are:

(1) Work is pretended to be done on the Spanish university plan; the boys are not taught but are lectured to.

(2) Teachers do not work on the blackboard and do not correct the texts that are dictated by them; the texts dictated are mostly verbatim copies from Spanish books.

(3) No text books are used; it is pretended that boys are requested to study reference books; this pretension does not hold. One of the reasons given for the absence of text books is that the book stores do not keep them. It is evident that if text books are not kept, reference books will not be kept either. Another reason given is that, according to the principal, no text books are kept in the French schools, a statement which is generally accepted by the teachers as true.

(4) Generally only one boy recites during one session.

(5) All the boys are deficient in Spanish grammar and orthography.

(6) No teacher, except Dr. Torriente, devotes more than one hour to his daily duties at the school.

(7) The principal leaves the school after he has finished his lesson.

(8) The janitor, his family and relations, are too prominent in the school.

(9) The beginnings of the sessions is not indicated by a bell, and time is not kept by the teachers.

(10) It is impossible to ascertain the exact number of boys who attend the school.

(11) Classes are not graded, and work requiring three hours is done in one.⁵⁸

Methods of Matriculation and Graduation. At each of the schools an entrance examination in the subjects taught in the elementary school is required. At the normal school the examination consisted in writing three lines from dictation and solving one problem in arithmetic. It is believed the examination in the institute is not more severe. At the industrial school a physical examination and a certificate of good character is also required.⁵⁹

Three, four or five years after matriculation the student is entitled to apply for final examination. If he passes this he receives a diploma or certificate, depending upon the school from which he graduates. In case he graduates from the institute his diploma entitles him to enter the Spanish universities. The peculiarities of this system are: (1) No regularity of attendance seems to be required. . . . (2) By payment of double fees no attendance at all was required at the school. (3) Other schools can be affiliated with the institute and normal school, and their pupils graduated with all the honors and privileges of the State schools by payment

⁵⁸56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 25.

⁵⁹This was due to the fact that most of the pupils entering the technical school were from the poorer class, considered a lower social class.

of double the examination fees charged at the State school. (4) A matriculation fee is charged in each subject pursued and an examination fee in each branch.⁶⁰

Suppression of Schools by United States Government. Before the investigation of the committee, the industrial or trade school had already been suspended; upon the recommendation of the committee the Institute and the Normal Schools were then suspended in June, 1899, at the close of the academic year.⁶¹

On July 28, 1899, by General Orders No. 108, the degree of bachelor was abolished and in lieu thereof a certificate was authorized to be issued by the insular board of education and signed by the president, stating the subjects completed by students upon whom the degree of bachelor was formerly conferred.⁶²

Summary. To summarize, it has been seen that there was no definite organization of secondary or professional education during the Spanish government before 1882 when the Institute was founded; that whatever existed of the two was the result of sporadic attempts here and there by the Church, private societies or clubs, municipalities, the government, and above all, by individuals of foresight and devotion to the welfare of the people; that all these attempts showed lack of knowledge of conditions or needs and of foresight, and therefore a lack of a definite end or aim; that the intellectual progress was due to infiltration of ideas from the outside, through the press, through teachers that came to the Island, and above all, through the efforts of the boys who left their homes and their Island to be educated abroad, and on their return threw themselves into the struggle for political, social and intellectual progress in behalf of their people.

If there were in Porto Rico during the Spanish government, professional men of worth, as there were; if there were men of letters, poets, orators, and editors, as there were; they were the results of the above influences more than the results of a well organized system of public instruction, whether primary or secondary. The existence of such men was not so much due to the system of public instruction, but to their natural intelligence and in spite of the available schools. However, Porto Rico was as well off as Spain educationally. The Institute was as good as the best in Spain and as good as could be expected in a Spanish colony. It was an institution that, judged with Spanish eyes and Spanish standards, was not bad, but, of course, when compared with American standards it fell short. But American

⁶⁰56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 26.

⁶¹*Ibid.*, p. 22.

⁶²*Ibid.*, p. 29.

methods, ideals and standards did not develop in Porto Rico until after the war, and in judging the educational institutions they must be judged by the prevailing standards. The cultural status of Porto Rico in 1898 compared favorably with that of Spain, which was all that could be expected of a Spanish colony, the population of which was three-fourths Spanish.

PART II

EDUCATION UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

(1898—1920)

CHAPTER VII

AMERICAN OCCUPATION AND THE BEGINNINGS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

A. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND SINCE 1898

The United States Occupation of Porto Rico. The autonomous government granted Porto Rico, November 25, 1897, was of short duration, for, a few months after the elections, April 21, 1898, Governor-General Macias suspended the constitutional guarantees and declared the Island in a state of war, although war was not formally declared until the 25th. On May the 12th, the city of San Juan was bombarded by Admiral Sampson, a few buildings being damaged and probably a dozen casualties. On July 25th the American forces occupied Guánica and three days later Ponce. After a few skirmishes in the western part of the Island, southwest and near the Asomante on the military road, the protocol was signed providing for the cession of Porto Rico to the United States. On October 18, the last of the Spanish troops to sail embarked for Spain, the forces of the United States occupied San Juan and raised the flag on the Fortaleza, proclaiming United States sovereignty and the end of Spanish rule.

Military Government. At the withdrawal of the Spanish troops, Major General John R. Brooke became Military Governor. On November 29 he abolished the Provincial Deputation and made other changes in the insular administration. On December 6 he was followed in office by Major General Guy V. Henry, who by executive order of February 6, 1899, dissolved the insular Cabinet of secretaries and constituted the departments of State, Justice, Finance and Interior, each presided over by a chief. On May 9, 1899, he was succeeded by General George W. Davis as Military Governor. On

August 12 the Governor abolished the existing form of government and created a Bureau of Internal Revenue, a Bureau of Agriculture, a Bureau of Public Works, a Judicial Board, a Board of Charities, a Board of Health, a Board of Prison Control, a Board of Insular Police, and the office of Civil Secretary of the Military Governor.

Civil Government. By act of April 19, 1900, which went into effect May the first, the United States Congress made provision for a Civil Government to consist of a Governor and an executive Council of eleven members to be appointed by the President for terms of four years, a House of Delegates of thirty-five members, and a Resident Commissioner in Washington to be elected by the qualified voters. The Executive Council was composed of the Insular Cabinet and five other persons of good repute. The Cabinet included a Secretary for Civil Affairs, an Attorney General, a Treasurer, an Auditor, a Commissioner of the Interior and a Commissioner of Education. The Executive Council and the House of Delegates comprised the Legislative Assembly of Porto Rico. On May 1, 1900, this government was established by the inauguration of Governor Charles H. Allen. Such was in general outline the civil government of Porto Rico until the present government was established in 1917.

Present Government. By the Organic Act of Congress of that year, known as the "Jones Act," a change was made in the government of the Island. The main features of that Act are the granting of United States citizenship to all the people born in the Island, the separation of the legislative and executive functions and the extension of the appointive Upper House to an elective Senate. The government is representative. The franchise is restricted to citizens of the United States twenty-one years of age or over, who have been in residence one year, with such additional qualifications as may be prescribed by the Legislature of Porto Rico, but no property qualification may be imposed.

The executive power resides in the Governor, appointed by the President. The legislative functions are vested in a legislature of two elective houses, the Senate composed of nineteen members (two from each of seven senatorial districts, and five senators at large) and the House of Representatives, composed of thirty-nine members (one from each of thirty-five representative districts, and four elected at large). The Island is represented in Congress by a Resident Commissioner elected by the people for a term of four years. There are six departments with a chief at the head of each.

Municipal Government. After the United States took possession, the municipal government continued substantially unchanged although reforms were introduced from time to time until the establishment of the present commission form of government. The present municipal government went into effect October 9, 1919, and since then has been slightly changed as experience has shown the need. This abolished practically all the existing municipal institutions and substituted a new body called the Municipal Assembly, which is the chief center of all local government. This assembly is elected by the people. It is bi-partisan in character and somewhat larger in each municipality than the old municipal council.

The actual administration is carried out by a commission of from three to five members, according to the size of the city, one of the members being the municipal commissioner of education. This commission is selected by the Assembly and responsible to it. The Assembly also makes the budget, levies the special taxes and in general controls the local government. The law reapportioned the receipts from the general property tax, granting the municipalities a larger share, and abolished much of the supervision over municipal affairs hitherto exercised by the officials of the insular government. This municipal law is radical and original when we consider how far local government is put in the hands of the people. At the same time it gives the municipalities an opportunity to develop a larger and more complete local life, and serves as a school for training in self-government.

B. SCHOOL ORGANIZATION UNDER THE MILITARY GOVERNMENT

Porto Rican Leaders Voice Public Sentiment in Education. The public schools continued their work as they were organized, and although they were more or less disturbed, due to the change of government and the resignation of Spanish teachers, yet normal conditions were re-established soon, and it was the desire of the new government that they continue undisturbed as far as possible. Twelve days after the American flag had been raised at the Fortaleza, the first move toward a new policy of education was taken by a number of representative Porto Ricans, who in response to a public call met in Assembly at the theatre in San Juan, October 30, 1898, and adopted several resolutions, which manifested the great interest the leaders of Porto Rico had in education and stated their realization that the educational system needed to be improved.

Since this was the first public expression of the people on education under the American flag, it should be noted and preserved in the history of education of the Island. The following resolutions were adopted:

As regards public education, the best means of advancing our people would be kindergartens and normal schools as established in the United States. Our elementary and superior schools should be transformed and graded according to modern pedagogic methods. Secondary instruction should be a continuation of the primary and a preparation for the superior and collegiate. Universal education should be introduced on the best models of the United States. There should be established schools for adults, Sunday schools, schools of arts and trades, libraries, museums, academies of fine arts and literary clubs. Education must be obligatory and gratuitous and it must be compulsory on every municipality to sustain its own schools, the number being fixed by law with reference to the population. If the municipality be unable to sustain all the schools, the State should establish the necessary ones. Grades of instruction should be three—the fundamental or that given by the public schools; the secondary, which should give positive notions on scientific, civic and technical subjects; the professional, which comprehends the knowledge of jurisprudence, medicine, engineering, and technology, the universities to diffuse general knowledge of science for purpose of high culture. For the formation of a competent body of teachers, it is necessary to establish normal schools for teachers of both sexes, normal schools for professors, normal schools for university teachers, and military and naval schools.¹

Some of those leading citizens who helped draw these resolutions are still living to-day, and have seen their dream partly realized in twenty years of American occupation. The part that native interest and initiative has contributed to educational ambition and growth should not be forgotten. Although these resolutions had no legal sanction and were only a popular expression of the will of the people, they contributed greatly to hastening reforms in education. They also showed the American government what the will of the people was in matters of education, and that the citizens of the Island would support any improvements in education that the government of the United States might wish to introduce.

... *First Official Educational Activities.* The United States officials surveyed the situation and acted slowly as many matters had to be cared for. By general orders number 17, issued November 29, the Provincial Deputation was discontinued, and all matters relating to education which had been in charge of that body were transferred to the department of the interior, which was still to be created officially in February of the next year.² By general orders number 18, issued

¹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 20.

²*Ibid.*

December 1, the royal sub-delegation of pharmacy was abolished, and the secondary institute was authorized to grant certificates to pharmacies. The archives of the sub-delegation were placed in charge of the Institute.³

First Official Utterance on Education. The first official utterance after the American occupation regarding public education was that of General Guy V. Henry. Addressing the council of secretaries, which was still in existence, he said: "The system of school education should be looked into, and it is my desire to ascertain how many teachers they (the municipalities) can pay, who can teach the American or English language, commencing with the younger children. It is believed that those who can speak English only can accomplish the purpose by object lessons. It is thought that American women for teaching can be obtained for fifty dollars a month in gold, and they are well worth it. The young children are anxious to learn and now is the time for them to do so. If Alcades can report to me how many teachers they can so employ, they will be brought from the United States and sent to these towns."⁴

Educational Conditions Investigated. But so far, no actual constructive work had been undertaken by the military government to investigate and modify the then existing school system. The educational survey to investigate educational conditions began in January, 1899, under the leadership of Dr. John Eaton, formerly United States Commissioner of Education. He was invited to come to Porto Rico to reorganize the school system, assisted by Dr. Victor S. Clark. They found the schools in a rather chaotic condition, due to the general excitement of the war, the departure of teachers to Spain, and the fact that in the absence of a legal head of the educational system, every municipality and even every teacher acted independently and many disregarded the existing laws and regulations. They found it difficult to give an accurate report of actual conditions because there were no authentic data to be found. However, the investigation continued, and by the end of April, 1899, recommendations were made providing for necessary changes in the laws governing public education.⁵

The School Laws of 1899. In the meantime the department of the interior was established and education made one of the bureaus of that department. Dr. John Eaton was made chief of the bureau of

³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 20

⁵*Ibid.*

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

education, in charge of all educational and charitable institutions, the basis for the school laws enacted by order of General Guy V. Henry, May 1, 1899.⁶ These laws, as compiled by Dr. Victor S. Clark, consist of two parts, the law of school districts, and laws concerning public instruction. Being the first school law of Porto Rico under the government of the United States, it is important to review its chief provisions.

The law urged the district to organize and establish public schools, but did not compel them to do so, it being permissive and not mandatory. The first part authorized the establishment of school districts and provided regulations for conducting the business of the same. Any barrio or town district was to have five trustees, that is, a school board of five members. In the town districts these officers were to be elected by twos and threes upon alternate years, and their terms were to be two years or until their successors were elected. In barrio districts the trustees were to be elected annually. The law defined the duties of the officer and established provision for taxation and bonding of districts.⁷ By the end of the year only one district, that of Mameyes, in the municipality of Utuado, had been organized according to law.⁸

Part II of the School Laws. "Laws Governing Public Instruction," was put into operation July 1, 1899. The law defined a public school, the rights of pupils, and the school year and its divisions. It abolished the fee system, made the public schools entirely free to pupils of all classes and degrees, established a graded system of schools in towns, and prescribed a legal course of study. It determined the legal qualifications of teachers in the primary and secondary schools and the university of Porto Rico, and their salaries and payment of the same. It authorized the provision of free text books for the public schools. It defined the relation of the municipalities to the public schools and granted powers to municipal school trustees to appoint teachers. It authorized the establishment of high schools, a normal school and the organization of professional schools of the University of Porto Rico. It provided rules and regulations governing the finances and accounts of the bureau of education.⁹

The School Law not Adaptable. This law met with a great deal of opposition due to the fact that it was not adapted to existing con-

⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 21.

⁷Clark, Victor S., *The School Laws of the Island of Porto Rico*, May 1, 1899, pp. 1-10.

⁸56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 26.

⁹Clark, Victor, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-47.

ditions. It must be admitted that the laws were too democratic to be carried out properly, for the political and social conditions required a more centralized system of education than this law provided. However, the law remained in force until the first year of the establishment of the civil government and in the meantime it was modified as subsequent experience showed the need. On May 9, 1899, when Brigadier General George V. Davis became military governor, he appointed a committee of Porto Rican teachers selected from different parts of the Island, who were to act in conjunction with the director of public instruction to review the laws and make desirable recommendations.¹⁰

The committee met and reported and their recommendations were in the main followed by the educational authorities, but no special orders were issued to that effect. Some of the recommendations were disregarded as impracticable, such as the one that public school salaries be increased, and that one-half of the salaries be paid during vacations.¹¹

Need for Centralization in Administration: Board of Public Instruction. So far the government of the United States had had possession of the Island for about a year. A general survey of educational conditions had been made. Education was administered through a bureau of education under the department of the interior and under the leadership of the Director of Education. Dr. Eaton had resigned and returned to the United States in the latter part of May. The new school law was to go into effect July 1. On July 8 an Insular Board of Education was established.¹² On August 12 the bureau of education was discontinued, and the Insular Board of Public Instruction took its place; the president of the Board was really the director of education who had to report directly to the Governor.¹³

Thus the process of centralization in the administration of education had begun, and it had to continue, due to the failure of the local boards to perform their duties and to the influence of politics on the local boards. On October 12, it was ordered that no more than three of the five school trustees should belong to one political party. This was due to the fact that many towns were completely under the ad-

¹⁰The following members composed the committee,—José Becerra Zayas and José Infante Saavedra of San Juan; Eladio J. Vega of Ponce, and Manuel Maria Arroyo, of Mayagüez.

¹¹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 28.

¹²The following were the members of the insular Board of Education: Dr. Victor S. Clark, Pres. George G. Groff, Henry Huyke, José E. Saldaña, and R. H. Todd.

¹³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 29.

ministration of one political party, there being often less than one hundred of the opposing party, so the party in power controlled the schools. The local boards had the power to appoint teachers but they neglected to do so, so on October 19th it was ordered that the president of the Insular Board of Education could appoint teachers for the public schools, whenever or wherever the municipalities failed to do so within five days after being notified by the President of the Insular Board that such appointments had to be made.¹⁴

A New Board of Education and Further Centralization. Due to the fact that administration of public instruction was being more and more centralized, not by law but by failure on the part of the municipalities to do their duties, and also in order to have a more representative body in charge of education, a new Board of Education was appointed on January 7, 1900. The Island was divided into six school districts and representatives were appointed from each district. District I, San Juan, was represented by Victor S. Clark, President; George B. Groff, José A. Saldaña, and R. H. Todd; District II, Fajardo, was represented by George Bird y Arias; District III, Arroyo, by Henry Huyke; District IV, Ponce, by Rosendo Matienzo Cintrón; District V, Mayagüez, by Bartolomé Esteva; and District VI, Arecibo, by J. Ruiz de Sagredo.¹⁵

Further needs of centralization and also the natural process of its evolution can be seen by observing more failures on the part of the local boards and increased assumption of duties by the Insular Board of Education. By the same order of January 7 it was ordered that where municipalities had failed to provide proper quarters for schools, but had contracted with teachers for the same, the salaries of these teachers had to be paid by the municipal authorities and not by the insular government; that municipalities should elect teachers immediately where they had not done so; that municipalities should open sufficient schools to accommodate all the children in their jurisdiction, and to support the same until the insular government was in a position to make special provision for such institutions; that the President of the Insular Board, through the English supervisors, should rent rooms for public schools wherever the municipalities had failed to do so of their own accord.¹⁶

The Need of a Very Centralized Department of Education. It was evident that the local school officers were not prepared to carry on

¹⁴56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 29.

¹⁵*Ibid.*

¹⁵*Ibid.*, p. 30.

the administration of the schools. They had every opportunity to show their ability, but they failed to perform their duties, which was the most obvious way to show their lack of ability or desire to run the local schools. It was also evident that the Organic Law of the school districts was premature and that it was issued without knowledge of the people's ability for self-government. The local boards were complete failures; they could not administer the schools efficiently, showing that centralization in school administration and a great deal of it, was absolutely necessary for the success of public instruction.

The Insular Board of Education as well as the military officials realized that with the change from a military to a civil form of government, a great deal of attention had to be given to education, and specially to the administration of education, and that in order to have a working system of public schools, there was need of a special department of education. When the Organic Act establishing a civil government in Porto Rico went into effect, on May 1, 1900, it provided for six executive departments, and one of these was the department of education with a commissioner at its head.

Difficulties Revealed. The nineteen months of military government preceding the establishment of civil government was a period of readjustment, of becoming acquainted, with a great desire on the part of the people of the Island to know and understand their new rulers, and as great a desire on the part of Americans to be understood. But the two civilizations, being so different and coming together so suddenly, it is not surprising that there were many misunderstandings on both sides. The aim of the American educators should have been to establish an American system of public schools, based on the demands of local psychology, adapted to local needs, a system of public schools embracing American ideals of education and yet adapted to a Latin American civilization, and capable of being put into operation in such a civilization. But on the contrary the people of the United States, having had no experience in colonial educational problems, transplanted the American school system to Porto Rico irrespective of conditions different from those of the United States.

The First American Schools at Work. In the meantime the emphasis in the schools was placed on the study of English and on patriotic exercises. The great desire of all was to learn English. Everyone who knew a little English became a teacher of the language and gave private lessons, and was very much in demand as interpreter. The

first utterance of an American official on education was in reference to teachers, "who can teach the American or English language, commencing with the young children." Next to English, patriotic exercises received the attention of the American educators. The children of Porto Rico are musical. As soon as the American songs were sung in the schools they became popular with the children and could be heard in the streets, in the country, and even in the tobacco factories. Translations into Spanish were made, and it was amusing to hear Porto Rican children singing "My country, 'tis of thee" and "My native country, thee."

Another favorite exercise was the salute to the flag every morning on entering school, when all the children would salute the flag and swear allegiance to the great Republic which it represented. Latin people are inherently patriotic. They love the very soil, the earth of the country they are born in, so these songs and exercises took a passionate hold of the children. Their love of "Patria" took possession of them and they expressed staunch allegiance to the United States.

Dr. M. G. Brumbaugh, the first Commissioner of Education, has a great deal to say regarding patriotic exercises. "In almost every city of the island," he says, "and at many rural schools, the children meet and salute the flag as it is flung to the breeze. The raising of the flag is the signal that the school has commenced and the flag floats during the entire session. The pupils then sing America, Hail Columbia, Star Spangled Banner, and other patriotic songs. The marvel is that they sing these in English. The first English many of them know is the English of our national songs. The influence is far reaching. In many schools the children also sing Borinquen, then 'canto provincial' of the island. . . . Washington's Birthday exercises were proposed and outlined by this department in a circular letter to the supervisors . . . The exercises were a fitting occasion to display their patriotism and their school training. In each case the exercises consisted of patriotic songs and speeches on Washington and on patriotism by the people . . . At least 25,000 children participated in these exercises and perhaps 5000 citizens joined in the patriotic demonstration. These exercises have done much to Americanize the island, much more than any other single agency. The young minds are being molded to follow the example of Washington. It is one of the gratifying results so far achieved in our work."

In 1900 the average Porto Rican child knew more about Washing-

ton, Lincoln and Betsy Ross and the American flag than the average child in the United States.¹⁷

School Statistics in 1900. At the end of the first term of the scholastic year, 1899-1900, just before the establishment of civil government, there were enrolled in the municipal schools of the Island, 24,392 pupils, of whom 15,440 were boys and 8,952 girls. The average daily attendance was 20,103, or 82% of the total. This large per cent was due to the fact that in many of the schools there was a waiting list, and the child failing to attend lost his seat. 5,175 pupils applied for admission to the schools and were refused for want of accommodations. About 3,000 children were receiving all their instruction under American teachers and about one-third of the total number enrolled received English instruction from the English speaking teachers. Over 15,000 children were just entering the schools and did not know how to read or write, while 96% of the total enrollment was in the lowest three grades. Nine hundred and eighty-four were doing what was called advanced work, that is, they were capable of performing easy problems in long division, and some were studying fractions and decimals in arithmetic. Two hundred and eighty-seven rural and two hundred and ninety-five town teachers were employed. Of the 620 schools provided for in the insular budget, 38 were closed for failure of the municipalities to provide proper buildings or to select teachers. There were nine rural schools reported with an enrollment of less than 20 pupils, while 309 reported the full enrollment of 50. The average age of the pupils enrolled was nine years.¹⁸

¹⁷*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico to the Secretary of the Interior, U. S. A., 1901, p. 72.*

¹⁸56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 39.

CHAPTER VIII

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION *

The administration of the public school system of Porto Rico is very highly centralized, with the central offices located in San Juan. Each municipality has its local school offices. The Island contains at present seventy-six units of political organization known as "municipalities." The school district is coterminous with the municipality and the local school officers have jurisdiction over all schools within their respective districts. As a connecting link between the central and the local offices there is a supervisor of schools who represents the Department of Education in the municipality, and vice versa. For the purpose of this chapter the subject will be treated under three divisions, namely, the Central Offices, Supervision, and the Local Offices.

A. THE CENTRAL OFFICES

Organization of the Department of Education. The process of centralization in school administration was a natural one. It grew out of conditions that had to be met. The second President of the Insular Board of Education, Dr. George G. Groff, became acting commissioner of education, May 1, 1900,¹ and remained in that position until Dr. M. G. Brumbaugh, appointed commissioner of education by President McKinley, took charge of the office, August 6, 1900. The Commissioner organized the department of education with the following staff: The Commissioner and Assistant Commissioner, a disbursing officer, a secretary, two stenographers, a book-keeper, a shipping clerk, a messenger, and a janitor.² The department moved September 1, 1900, into a few rooms in the Intendencia building on Plaza Alfonso XII, from the three small rooms it occupied in the upper story of the executive mansion.³

*See Appendix VI for a diagram of administration.

¹*The Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1900, p. 9.

²*Ibid.*, 1900, p. 10.

³*Ibid.*, 1901, p. 8.

The Need of a New School Law. Although the new department had been organized and had begun work, yet the laws governing education had not been revised, nor repealed, so there was now a department of education under a civil government, governed by military orders. It was hard for the department to do its work under these orders for many reasons. According to Dr. Groff, the laws had been written in part by Dr. Eaton, who was in the Island three months, and who made but one trip outside of the capital.⁴ Dr. Eaton did not know Porto Rico, its people and its needs. He simply tried to adapt the school system of Massachusetts, based on clear and democratic principles, to a Latin American civilization, when the people were not ready to conduct their own affairs in matters of education.

Dr. Brumbaugh summarizes the working of the military orders in the following words:

The law authorizes the granting of licenses to teach to all teachers for five years. It does not require an examination of applicants, provided they hold a Spanish or a Porto Rican title. It gives the power to employ teachers, wholly to local boards. . . . Licenses were issued in great numbers, vastly more than there were schools upon the Island. The power to control the teaching force is thus taken bodily from the department and placed with the local boards. This is fatal to the advancement of the schools. It is impossible to supervise education as required by the act of Congress, providing a civil government for Porto Rico, so long as the commissioner is absolutely helpless in the control of teachers. There should be a change here that would make it impossible for incompetent teachers to hold a license, and that will protect good teachers from the competitions and machinations of worthless teachers and from the pernicious interference of politicians. The department does not covet power, but it is willing to assume power when by doing so it can give security to worthy teachers and the best instruction to the pupils.

Local boards of education are constituted by the same law. These are required to pay rent for teachers' homes, select, rent and equip buildings for school purposes, and elect teachers for the schools. They have the power to assess or collect any money. They are entirely at the mercy of the alcade of any Ayuntamiento of the several municipalities. These municipalities are frequently in debt and make no appropriation to the local boards. Thus they are by law compelled to make contracts which by law they are helpless to honor. Many of these boards are composed of good men, anxious to promote education, and to cooperate with the department, but they frankly confess their inability to do as they would like, because they have neither power nor resources to do so.⁵

Provision of the Organic Act Regarding the Commissioner of Education. Although the Commissioner of Education is appointed by the President of the United States, for a term of four years, or at

⁴*Ibid.*, 1900, p. 10.

⁵*Ibid.*

the pleasure of the President, to be legally the chief of the department of education, yet most of his powers proceed from the Insular Legislature. The Organic Act for Porto Rico, passed by the Congress of the United States, April 12, 1900, and which became effective in Porto Rico May 1, has the following provision regarding the Commissioner of Education:

That the commissioner of education shall superintend public instruction throughout Porto Rico and all disbursements on account thereof must be approved by him, and he shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law, and make such reports through the governor as may be required by the Commissioner of Education of the United States, which shall annually be transmitted to Congress.⁶

Federal legislation for Porto Rico requires certain duties of the Commissioner as an appointee of the federal government, but the Insular Legislature prescribes his duties in detail as the administrator of the insular school system and as an officer paid by the insular government.

The School Law of 1901. Until 1916, the Commissioner of Education was a member of the upper house of the legislature of Porto Rico, the Executive Council. This being so, it was practically easy to legislate for schools, more so when the Assembly or lower house, composed of Porto Ricans, were all in favor of the extension and improvement of the system of public instruction. Dr. Brumbaugh himself prepared the school law known as "An Act to Establish a System of Public Schools in Porto Rico." This law was presented to both houses and approved January 31, 1901, to go into operation on and after March 25, 1901. It centralized the administration of the schools, giving much more power and responsibility to the Commissioner of Education.

Purpose of the School System. Section I of this law provides:

That there shall be established and maintained a system of free public schools in Porto Rico, under the direction and supervision of the commissioner of education, for the purpose of providing a liberal education for the children of school age in Porto Rico, for the establishment of higher institutions of learning, including colleges, universities, normal, industrial, mechanical, agricultural and high schools, together with such other educational agencies as the commissioner of education may from time to time establish and direct.⁷

Duties of the Commissioner. And section 23 of the same law sets forth the duties and powers of the Commissioner in the following paragraph:

⁶*Organic Act for Porto Rico*, April 12, 1900.

⁷*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, April 9, 1901, p. 164. School Laws of Porto Rico.

The commissioner of education, being required by act of Congress of April 12, 1900, to supervise education in Porto Rico, he shall, to comply with said act, appoint from time to time supervisors, or superintendents of schools, who shall be subject to the commissioner in all respects; he shall prepare and promulgate all courses of study, conduct all examinations; prepare and issue all licenses or certificates to teachers; select and purchase all school books, supplies and equipments necessary for the proper conduct of education; approve of all plans for public school buildings to be erected in Porto Rico; require and collect such statistics and reports from all school boards, supervisors or superintendents and teachers as he may require; and formulate such rules and regulations as he may from time to time find necessary for the effective administration of his office.⁸

Further Centralization. In contrast with the military orders, where administration of schools was in the hands of local boards, there is now a high degree of centralization. This had to come, first, because the local boards were a failure, and second, in order to comply with the Organic Act of April 12, 1900, which in itself gave the Commissioner ample powers and wide responsibilities. From time to time the legislature of Porto Rico has legislated with respect to the duties and powers of the Commissioner of Education, and the tendency has generally been to extend more and more his powers and duties, to centralize the system more and more.

In 1915 the duties and powers of the Commissioner were summarized in the following words.:

The commissioner, appointed for a term of four years, or at the pleasure of the President of the United States, with full powers of appointment over all subordinates, except certain classes of teachers, is empowered to determine the course of study, the length of the school year with limitations prescribed by law, and the length of the school day. He is in charge of the examination and certification of teachers, and no expenditure of public moneys for school purposes on the part of either the school boards or any of his subordinates in the department can be made without his approval. He is a member of the executive council, ex-officio president of the board of trustees of the University of Porto Rico, and of the insular library.⁹

Additional Duties of the Commissioner. Still other responsibilities have been added to the official duties of the Commissioner, not directly connected with the work of the department of education, to the extent that a considerable part of the time, which should be devoted primarily to education, is taken up in other duties.

Dr. Paul G. Miller, the last Commissioner of Education, speaks of such a state of affairs in the following terms:

In addition to his regular duties as commissioner of education, the present incumbent has served in the following capacities: Member of the Executive Council,

⁸*Ibid.*, School Laws of Porto Rico. p. 168.

⁹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1915, p. 314.*

Member of the Public Service Commission, President of the Board of Trustees of the University of Porto Rico, Chancellor of the University of Porto Rico, President of the Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Library, President of the Teachers' Pension Board, and Chairman of the Chapter School Committee of the Porto Rico Chapter of the American National Red Cross. Through recent legislative action he has been made a member of a scholarship committee and of a committee to investigate and pass on pension claims of certain teachers. The public service commission has frequently held three meetings a week. With these multifarious demands upon the commissioner's time, it has not always been possible to give the closest attention to the work for which he was primarily appointed.¹⁰

From the above is seen the unusually high degree of centralization of the department of education, the unusual number of powers, duties and responsibilities of the Commissioner, and the tremendous amount of influence which he is in a position to exercise in the general government of the Island. The new Organic Act has relieved him of his legislative duties, but there is still a danger of his accepting other duties alien to the work of the department, and thereby causing a detriment to education. The Commissioner of Education in Porto Rico is then the pivot man around whom the whole insular system of education revolves.

Present-Day Organization of Central Offices. In comparison with the organization of the department in 1900 by Dr. Brumbaugh, it is well to notice the organization today. With the gradual extension of the school system the personnel of the department has increased so that today it is composed of the following: the Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioner, the division of property and accounts, the bureau of municipal school affairs,* and the division of supervision and records. Each division has a chief appointed directly by the Commissioner and responsible to him. The field staff is composed of three general superintendents, one of whom is general superintendent of Spanish; three general supervisors, manual arts, agriculture and home economics; and forty-one district supervisors, one over each school district.¹¹

The Assistant Commissioner. The Assistant Commissioner of Education is chosen and appointed by the commissioner at his pleasure, and, until recently, he was the head of the division of supervision. Due to the many duties of the Commissioner, he relieves him of much detail work. In the absence of the Commissioner from the Island he assumes all the responsibilities of the office of commissioner, except

¹⁰*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 532.

*Until 1919, the division of school board accounts.

¹¹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, pp. 534 and 583.

President of the Board of Trustees of the University, and Chancellor of the same. When the Commissioner had legislative duties, the Assistant Commissioner did not assume these in the absence of the Commissioner.¹²

Division of Property and Accounts. The division of property and accounts handles all matters in connection with the purchase, distribution and custody of books, supplies, and all office and school property bought and furnished by the department. It prepares and certifies the pay rolls of teachers and employees paid by the department, and keeps a record of their absence. It also keeps service records.

The Bureau of Municipal Affairs. The bureau of municipal affairs handles all the work in connection with the approval of municipal budgets and examination and auditing of all municipal school accounts. It prepares all data relative to the financial standing of the municipalities; it is required to pass upon the advisability of granting them authority to contract indebtedness, borrows money or issues bonds; it handles all the detail arising from the selection and purchase of sites by municipalities, and for the construction and repair of buildings. The work of the chief of the bureau can only be appreciated when a study is made of the increase in the municipal support of the school system since 1898.

Division of Supervision and Records. The division of supervision and records is headed by the secretary of the Department. This division handles all details which arise from the examination and certification of teachers, keeps all documents and official records, files all official correspondence, prepares all statistics in connection with the work of the school system, and aids the Commissioner in all matters which do not fall in the jurisdiction of any of the other divisions.

Summary of Organization. The organization, administration and work of the department of education of Porto Rico is seen then to be characterized by a high degree of centralization. The public school system of Porto Rico is headed by the Commissioner of Education who is appointed by the President of the United States for a term of four years, or at his pleasure, with full power of appointment over all subordinates, except certain classes of teachers. He is responsible to the Governor in that he reports to the War Department at Washington through him.

¹²*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 315.

The insular legislation enacts laws for the Commissioner to execute, so he is responsible to the legislature but his tenure of office does not depend on that body. By law he is president of the board of trustees of the University of Porto Rico, chancellor of the University, in which he has a large influence in the selection of the university faculties, and in its government and policy. He appoints all his subordinates: that is, the Assistant Commissioner, the general superintendents, the district supervisors, the general supervisors of home economics, manual arts and agriculture, and the heads of the divisions. He also appoints directly teachers of English and other special teachers, and he must approve the nominations made by the local officers, so that the nominations of teachers must be approved by him to make their appointments complete. All expenditures for educational purposes, whether for insular, municipal or university funds, are subject to his approval.

The Commissionership a Political Office. Such a centralization in the hands of one man has its advantages and its disadvantages. The Commissioner is a political appointee. In order to keep the schools of Porto Rico out of insular politics, the Commissioner of Education with his wide powers, has been an appointee of the President. There is no doubt that if he were to be selected as the other heads of departments are, he would be a member of the party in power. Whether the Governor and the legislature would select the best man for the place irrespective of political affiliations, or whether they would select a politician, is not to be considered here. However, since it is almost certain that if the Commissioner were to be selected by the insular authorities politics would enter into his appointment more than if he were a presidential appointee; and since the head of an educational system should be chosen not because of his political affiliations or even of citizenship, but because of personal fitness and preparation to perform the duties which such an office would devolve upon him, it is better that for the present the Commissioner of Education should be appointed by the President.

Frequent Changes of Commissioners. It may not be hard to prove that federal politics have entered in the appointments of commissioners of education in Porto Rico, for changes of administration in Washington and changes in federal appointees in Porto Rico have correlated highly. However, the changes in Washington do not come often enough to make frequent changes in the Commissioner of Education. The changes in the office of the commissioner have been

due more to the fact that all of them, with the exception of the present one, were Americans from the Continent who did not care to remain in the Island for a long term, so that in the last twenty-one years there have been six commissioners of education, or an average of a three and a half year term for each.

As each commissioner has had different policies from the preceding one, the department changes its policies with the change in commissioner and oftentimes a man has not been in office long enough to study the Island, know its needs, understand the people, and get his policies working, when he left. The work of the department would be more efficient if the commissioner could carry out his programme through a term of at least eight years. However, these changes have their advantages in that they keep new blood entering the school system. Anyone of the North who has worked in the tropics knows that due to isolation and climate it is easy to get stale, to stagnate educationally. The frequent changes, with all their disadvantages, bring in new blood, new aims, new methods, and stimulation to professional growth.

The Commissioner Must Play a Political Game. As already stated, the insular legislature must pass the laws which the Commissioner executes and must appropriate all insular funds for the school system. The Commissioner then is responsible to the people through their legislature, and at the same time must keep on good terms with that body, so as to have his measures and recommendations passed upon. If he is not in accord with the legislature, that body can hinder his work by failing to appropriate the necessary funds. To a certain extent, however, he must play a political game in order to have the school system run smoothly. Happily no body of citizens in Porto Rico has realized the need of public education more than the legislature, with the result that the Commissioner has generally had the support of the legislature in his effort to conduct the department efficiently. Such being the case, the legislature serves as a check on the Commissioner, even though it has no voice in his selection.

Thus far the presidents of the United States have been wise in the selection of commissioners of education. No one would challenge the statement that all the commissioners of education to Porto Rico have been men of ability and professional training. They have performed their task to the best of their abilities with the help of their subordinates, many of whom have been, and are, Porto Ricans. They have not been infallible, but that is to be expected of every human

being. Due to the extreme centralization of the department of education, it is most important that the Commissioner be a man of integrity and well qualified for his office, for round him revolves the whole educational machinery, and a poor and inefficient Commissioner means a poor and inefficient system of schools.

B. SUPERVISION

The First Supervisors. The first supervisors under the government of the United States were appointed as a result of a general need for English teachers. It will be remembered from Chapter VII that General Guy V. Henry, on December 7, 1898, expressed his desire to secure teachers "who can teach the American or English language." There were no English teachers to employ and none were employed until March 23, 1899, when by order of the military governor sixteen English supervisors were appointed for the whole Island, their duties combining those of itinerant English teachers and inspectors of schools. They rendered frequent reports to the Bureau of Education, held teachers' meetings and acted as instructors of English to both teachers and pupils. According to Dr. Clark the department of supervision, because of the nature of the work, became a most important agency in the development of the school system.¹³

Academic Qualifications of First Supervisors. The first supervisors were chosen from American and English nationals residing in the Island at the time and who were willing to work at a small salary.¹⁴ They were paid fifty dollars a month, American currency. According to Dr. Groff, these men were "ex-soldiers, ex-teamsters, ex-packers, and other such men very largely,"¹⁵ yet their academic preparation shows that the most of them were academically qualified, if not professionally. Dr. Victor S. Clark says that ten held degrees from colleges or universities in the United States or England, or had completed special courses in such institutions, three were graduates of city high schools, and one of these had taken some work in a professional school, and one reported only a common school education and experience as a teacher in the public schools of Ohio.¹⁶

Americans vs. Porto Ricans for Supervisors. Although many Porto Rican teachers were as well qualified academically and knew the language and the people, yet these positions were given to foreigners

¹³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 27.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. 34.

¹⁵*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1900, p. 11.

¹⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 34.

who could not communicate with the teachers. It is well to note the reasons given by Dr. Clark in support of the argument that it was desirable supervisors should be foreign born. He says, "These men must be for some time to come Americans. Native inspectors suffer many disadvantages; they are not accustomed to the standards of the States and therefore not disposed to require such standards in the schools here. They do not command the same respect from the teachers that well qualified men from other countries would command at the present time. Finally many of the most trying and delicate duties of the supervisors are connected with local difficulties arising through partisan political jealousies and animosities. While it may not be impossible to secure impartial action in such cases from native supervisors, it would be impossible to prevent charges of partiality, and the belief on the part of many teachers and patrons of the schools that injustice was being done, would weaken the authority of our representatives."¹⁷

This is true and its being so is much more interesting when the change in the last twenty years is noted, and the fact that to-day 31 out of 41 district supervisors are native born, while all the assistants are also native born, showing the advancement made in the preparation of men to occupy positions of responsibility in the school system.¹⁸

Duties of First Supervisors. The duties of the first supervisors were as follows: "(1.) To hold teachers' meetings for instruction in English and methods. (2.) To render a monthly report upon all the schools of their district, including special reports upon enrollment, methods, conditions of school buildings and surroundings, the programme followed in the schools and the progress made in individual subjects. (3.) To pay the teachers their monthly salary checks. (4.) To distribute and keep account of all text-books and government supplies for the district. (5.) To preside at the quarterly examinations given by the insular board of education for teachers and for students desiring to enter secondary schools. (6.) The supervisors acted as direct representatives of the insular board in securing school buildings, in seeing that the school laws were enforced, that buildings complied with the requirements of the laws, in stimulating local action in the way of securing school supplies, and in investigating the mul-

¹⁷56th Cong. S. D. p. 34.

¹⁸*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 583.

titude of petitions and complaints pertaining to the schools of the different municipalities."¹⁹

Difficulties of First Supervisors. In the exercise of their duties, the supervisors met with a great deal of opposition and difficulties, due to the nature of their work, to the friction of races and to the lack of a common language to communicate with the teachers. The teachers looked upon supervision as detective work from the officials of a government that had come as conqueror. The supervisors knew no Spanish to explain their positions and their motives, the teachers knew no English to communicate with them. Some time the supervisors knew enough Spanish to use the wrong phrase at the wrong time.

The teachers were not accustomed to close supervision. As a general rule they did as they pleased in the conduct of their school work, they smoked in the classroom and often neglected their duties. Sometimes failure to do better led to dismissal of a teacher. That teacher was a well known citizen of the community, had lived and taught there for several years and was looked upon with respect by the community. Dismissal then meant intrusion on the part of a foreigner. Local petitions would be sent to the authorities asking that the teacher be reinstated; and thus grew the animosity between the supervisor on one hand and the teacher and the municipality on the other, a state of affairs which made the task of the supervisor a difficult one. Yet a great deal of good was derived from such supervision. Through these officials local conditions were investigated, the educational sentiment of the various districts was found out and plans were formulated to select a more efficient corps of assistants and to apply better methods of supervision.

The Supervisory Staff Enlarged. With the beginning of the civil government and the establishment of education with an educational expert as chief, supervision of schools was one of the first matters to receive the attention of the Commissioner. Dr. Groff, on retiring as acting commissioner, recommended that the force of supervisors be reduced more and more. "The law," said he, "fixes the number at sixteen. I would have, if I had remained in the office, reduced the number to ten the present year. After that we might reduce the number to five or seven."²⁰

Dr. Brumbaugh, on the contrary, instead of reducing the number,

¹⁹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 34.

²⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education to Porto Rico, 1900, p. 11.*

reorganized the force, secured sixteen supervisors allowed by the law and placed them with increased power and dignity at the front of education in their respective districts. They were given clearly defined territory to supervise and their salaries were increased to \$87 per month. The Commissioner kept in very close contact with the supervisors through correspondence, secured from most of the municipalities provision in their budgets for the house and office rent of supervisors; and from the legislature recognition of these supervisors as necessary officers of the department and worthy of a living salary.

The legislature responded by increasing the salary of the supervisors to \$1200 a year. The Commissioner undertook the personal leadership of the work of supervision and instituted conferences of supervisors held at the rooms of the department during the holiday recess, where a few days were spent in earnest discussion of the problem and general work of supervision.²¹ Such was the beginning of the system of supervision prevailing in Porto Rico today.

Development of Supervision, Provisions of Law of 1901. While it is impossible to give in this brief account a detailed development of supervision in Porto Rico, it is very important that its development be presented even if in general outline only. The first school law enacted by the insular legislature was that of April 9, 1901. This law continued the office of "English supervisors" and provided for the supervision of schools in the following terms:

The supervision of schools is at all times under the immediate direction and guidance of the commissioner of education and shall in every manner consistent with the welfare of the schools cooperate and assist the local boards in performing their duties under the law. Their duties shall be prescribed by the commissioner of education and their services may be dispensed with at any time he may deem it necessary for the good of the schools to do so. They shall receive the cordial support and assistance of the teachers, parents, and school boards, and their function as representatives of the commissioner of education shall be respected and obeyed.²² The official name used in reference to these officers was supervisors or superintendents of schools.²³

Provisions of 1903 Law. The school law of 1903 changes the name of the office from "English supervisor" to "Superintendent of Schools" and it prescribes the duties of the superintendent in almost the same words as the law of 1901 and it adds the following:

They should be furnished by the school boards with a suitable office for the transaction of their public business or office rent in lieu thereof, but with no house rent.

²¹Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1901, p. 39.

²²School Laws of Porto Rico, April 9, 1901, page 23.

²³Ibid., April 9, 1901, Sec. 23, p. 13.

They shall make annual report to the commissioner of education on the condition of the schools in their districts. Said report shall be presented June first of each and every year. They shall make such additional reports, statistical or otherwise, as the said commissioner may direct.²⁴

With very few changes the duties of the superintendent have continued to be the same, with a growing tendency to make this official a professional head, and decrease the clerical duties. The term "superintendent" was changed later to "supervising principal"; while new officers were appointed under the title of "general superintendents to be subject in all respects to the commissioner, who shall prescribe their duties."²⁵

Additional Supervisors. In the academic year 1913-1914, due to the addition of manual training, household economy, agriculture, music and drawing, to the elementary course of study and due also to the new emphasis placed on the study of the Spanish language, the division of supervision was augmented by a supervisor of Spanish, a supervisor of manual training, a supervisor of domestic science and household economy, and a supervisor of playgrounds and athletics.²⁶ In 1915 the term "supervising principal" was changed again to that of "supervisor" which is still the official name of that office.

For administrative purposes the Island of Porto Rico is divided into political units known as municipalities. Each municipality consists generally of an urban center and an outlying rural territory, subdivided into wards or "barrios." The Island is divided into seventy-six municipalities. For the purpose of supervision it is divided into school districts. During the first year of the American occupation it was divided into sixteen school districts, which number continued until 1902. At that time the number was increased to nineteen. In the academic year 1903-1904, the number was reduced to eighteen. From 1904 to 1908 it continued to be divided into nineteen districts.

School Districts. At the session of the insular legislature in 1908, the Island was newly districted and provision was made for thirty-five school districts and an automatic increase as the necessity of the different districts demanded.²⁷ Since then the number of school districts has varied. From 1909 to 1911 there were forty-three, and at that time the number was decreased to forty-one, which is the

²⁴*Ibid.*, Approved March 12, 1903, Sec. 62. p. 19.

²⁵*Ibid.*, Compiled by Carey Hickle, Aug. 1914, p. 47f.

²⁶*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1913, p. 358.

²⁷*Ibid.*, 1913, p. 247.

present subdivision.²⁸ The supervisor is the educational head of the school district. Today school districts are graded into classes: First, municipalities having one hundred schools or more; second, municipalities having from fifty to ninety-nine schools; third, municipalities having less than fifty schools.²⁹

Salaries of Supervisors. The salaries of supervisors have been increased from time to time. In 1899 when the office of supervisor was created, the salary was \$50.00 a month. On July 1, 1899, the salary was increased to \$900.00 a year, from which the supervisors paid their own transportation. The supervisors of San Juan and Ponce acted also as school principals and received a salary of \$1200 a year.³⁰ In 1901 the supervisor's salary was increased to \$1044 a year and soon to \$1200 a year.³¹ On March 12, 1908 the school districts were classified into first, second and third classes and salaries fixed to the category of the district. In 1908 the salary schedule for supervisors was as follows:

First class districts—\$1500 per annum.

First " " 1300 " "

Third " " 1200 " "

In addition to the above fixed salaries, first and second class district supervisors received from the municipal school boards an allowance of \$240 per annum for house and office rent, and third class district supervisors, \$200 per annum for travelling expenses.³² Although the cost of living has increased, the salaries of supervisors remained stationery until 1918.* The salaries of the general supervisors as fixed by law in 1908 was \$1800 per annum.*

Personnel and Qualifications of Supervisors. The personnel and qualifications of supervisors during the military government has already been considered in this chapter. Until 1909, no law was passed prescribing academic standards for supervisors, or limiting the number to American or native born. The supervisors were appointed by the Commissioner of Education, and he generally appointed them on the basis of training, successful experience and general efficiency. The only requirement ever made was that of 1909, when the legislature ruled "that after June 30, 1909, no person shall occupy

²⁸*Ibid.*, 1909, p. 250.

²⁹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1915, p. 314.

³⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 39.

³¹*School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914 p. 46.

³²56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 34.

*These have increased substantially in late years.

the position of supervising principal, who shall not hold a principal's license issued by the Department of Education of Porto Rico, in pursuance of the provisions of section 38 of an act entitled "The Codified School Law of Porto Rico" approved March 12, 1903."³³

Generally the supervisors have been teachers who have been promoted because of their efficiency. The question of birth has not been emphasized and if at all the department has been working toward having as many Porto Rican born as possible, realizing that the future of the public schools is in the hands of the native born. Regarding the supervising staff, the last commissioner of education, Dr. Paul G. Miller, had the following to say:

At the present time of the forty-one district supervisors, thirteen are American born and twenty-eight are Porto Ricans; thirty-seven are men and four women; seven are graduates of American colleges or universities, but only one of these is a native Porto Rican; ten are holders of a normal school diploma, and all hold the principal's teachers license. Practically all of them have taken special courses in normal schools, colleges and universities, and not a few of them have received practical training in the field as assistants of older and experienced men. In fact the plan of assigning candidates, who apparently possess desirable qualifications for supervisorship to serve as assistants, has proved to be one of the most satisfactory means of assuring competency and success in the service.³⁴

The Supervisor is Primarily an Administrative Officer. As to the efficiency of the work of supervision, much has been accomplished and still more remains to be accomplished. The work of the first supervisors has already been described. They were inspectors rather than supervisors. In the discussion of this chapter it has been shown the change of name from time to time of the official called today a supervisor, almost every new Commissioner changing the name. The name used first was "English supervisor," then later "superintendent" still later "supervising principal" and today "supervisor." Although the name changed, the duties did not change much, with the exception of the natural evolution of duties attached to the office.

The mere history of the office shows that the duties of this official were such that it was hard to choose an appropriate name. He is not a supervisor, as the term is professionally used, that is, the person who supervises instruction, studies both teachers and pupils, and introduces methods to improve the teachers and the general character and quality of classroom activities, with the child as the ultimate

³³*School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914 p. 45.

³⁴*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 560. Since this date more Porto Ricans have been appointed.

aim. Most of the time of the supervisor is taken up with duties outside of the school, duties of an administrative and clerical character. As to his visit to the average teacher he is "el inspector de escuelas," which means exactly the same as the European inspector of schools. The teacher does not see a helper and a councillor in the supervisor, but a higher authority, a superior.

Activities of the Supervisor. The office of supervisor in Porto Rico is a very important one, but his duties today are such that he has very little time, if any, for real supervision. A quotation from the report of the commissioner of education to the Governor will give the reader an idea of the function of supervisors in Porto Rico. "He receives and distributes all text books and supplies for the district and keeps a property account of all insular government property in his care. He makes the necessary change of reports in the teaching force, so as to enable the central office to make out pay rolls correctly. He attends school board meetings and assists in the many varied activities taken in these meetings, such as the establishment of new schools, the selection of building sites, school furniture and equipment, the nomination of teachers, the formation of the school board budget, and the making of repairs of the school buildings. He takes an active and in most cases the principal part in enforcing the present defective compulsory attendance law. He takes the leading part in the rural campaign to awaken the interest and secure the cooperation of the peasantry in school work. He visits schools and confers with teachers as to the improvement of their work, and prescribes and makes out examinations for pupils. He conducts examinations for candidates for the teachers licenses, confers with patrons of the school about numerous matters concerning the progress and welfare of the pupils, and renders numerous reports to the central office. During the recent war, the supervisor of schools has been a leader and promoter of practically all war activities, from the sale of war saving stamps to rendering assistance in carrying out the draft law."³⁵

Too Many Outside Duties of the Supervisor. The supervisor, accordingly, has to do everything that nobody else will do, together with his official duties. He is more of a general efficiency man or social worker than a supervisor of instruction. However, these numerous activities quoted above show the importance of the office of supervisor, the prestige he has in the community, and the possibilities within his power to penetrate into the life of the community and

³⁵Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 560.

help out in its general uplift, if he had a staff to which he might delegate many of the present duties and responsibilities.

But as it is today, he is not a supervisor of schools technically speaking, and he has not the time to supervise the instruction as a supervisor should. As it will be seen in another chapter, the rural teachers in Porto Rico are the ones who have the greatest task to perform and the greatest service to render. Many rural teachers are poorly prepared for the performance of their duties and are sadly in need of supervision and help. A visit or two a month and often less does very little for them professionally. They need personal contact, help and sympathy from the supervisor which it is impossible for the present official to render with his multifarious duties.

C. THE LOCAL OFFICES

The first school law of Porto Rico under the government of the United States, provided for the election of five school trustees in each municipality which composed the school board, and the large powers of these boards, plus their failure to perform their duties as prescribed by law, led more and more to the centralization of school administration. It remains to consider here the workings of the school boards from 1901 to 1919, when they were replaced by the municipal commissioner of education.

Work of the Boards. During those eighteen years, the school boards were composed of three members, elected by the qualified voters of each municipality at the regular municipal election. As already noted, a municipality includes the whole municipal district, so these three officers were elected by all the voters, both urban and rural, and represented the same in all school matters. They were given ample powers to hold in their corporate names the title to land and other property acquired for school purposes; to be in charge of school buildings in their respective districts; to build, repair, remodel and improve school property in general; to rent buildings for school purposes; to provide a suitable equipment and furniture for the school buildings; to employ janitors, nominate rural and graded teachers and principals and to perform such duties as the Commissioner of Education might require in accordance with the school laws. In case of a vacancy the Commissioner appointed a member to serve in the place of the retiring member.

The Supervisors and the Board. The supervisor of schools was an ex-officio member of the board, and was entitled to participate in its

discussions, to receive notice of its meetings, to examine its minutes, records and accounts in like manner as a duly elected member of the board, but had no vote. He shared with the school board the right to assign the teachers to their respective grades and schools. The supervisors and the boards worked together effectively with rare exceptions of friction due generally to misunderstandings and not to lack of good will. The school boards were the direct representative of the people, while the supervisor was the representative of the department and thereby of the insular government.

Municipal Commissioner of Education. Under the new municipal law school boards are abolished and in place thereof there is provided a municipal commissioner of education who has all the powers and duties formerly exercised by the school boards except the voting on the school budget. There is also a supervisor of schools in every district who acts as professional head and representative of the department of education.

Criticisms and Answers. It has been charged that such a centralized system curbed local initiative, and thereby delayed preparation for self-government; that as each district elects its mayor, now, its municipal assembly, its representatives and its senators, so they should elect its school officers; that such a centralized system of administration takes away from the people a further opportunity for the practice of self-government.

In answer to such contentions, it might be stated that the other machinery of government furnishes ample opportunity for lessons and for practice in self-government, especially now with the new municipal law, when more people will take part in local politics. At the same time, the new municipal law shows the tendency of the legislature to centralize more the educational machinery, for only one school officer is selected to represent the people, the municipal commissioner of education, instead of the school board of three members. The failure of the local boards of the Spanish régime and the power of the Governor in spite of the local boards, as well as the inefficiency and lack of initiative of the school trustees during the American military government, should not be forgotten.

General Tendency toward Centralization. Moreover, the general tendency in the last fifty years has been toward centralization as the most efficient way to conduct a school system. This tendency has not been observable only in Europe where the governments have used the public schools for nationalistic ends, but also in the United

States, known as the champion of democratic ideals. Centralization of the educational system in Porto Rico has done away with many of the petty local political issues entering the schools, and even with such a highly centralized system local politics have entered too much into school matters and many a good teacher has been left without a position because he or she did not happen to belong to the party in power, while inefficient teachers have been nominated by local boards not because they were better qualified but because they were willing to comply with the requirements of the politicians. The people of Porto Rico are well acquainted with the fee of twenty-five dollars that each teacher had to promise to pay to the party in power before he received his nomination from the municipal school board. Only the determination of the last Commissioner of Education to do away with such corruption on the part of the local boards secured good teachers the assurance of their positions.

Conclusion. It is the opinion of the writer that the present highly centralized educational system is the best for Porto Rico. Whether the Commissioner remains an appointee of the President of the United States or whether he will be selected by the insular authorities, the high degree of centralization should be continued, and the Commissioner will be the one man responsible for the success of the system. When something goes wrong or when the results achieved do not come up to expectations, there will be one man who will be responsible for undoing the wrong or for achieving the results compatible with the existing circumstances. However, there is the danger in the present system to add to the official duties of the Commissioner outside duties to the extent that his usefulness as the administrator of the school system is impaired. There is also the danger of the Commissioner making of his office a bureaucracy by failing to delegate powers to his subordinates. Since these evils are so imminent, so much more the need that the Commissioner be a man qualified to overcome these dangers.

Complaints have been heard from time to time that the centralized scheme of administration lends itself to inefficiency on the part of the Commissioner, that he would not choose as subordinates men of ability and training, but only those whom he could handle. This might be true, therefore the importance of choosing the Commissioner on his personal qualities, preparation and ability instead of on his political adherence.

Commissioners have been accused of being tyrannical and unjust.

It would be an impossibility to find a perfect, infallible commissioner, one who did not make mistakes, who was liked by all and who pleased everybody. The fact that such a man cannot be found does not take away the virtues of the centralized system of school administration as the one under which the best results can be achieved. A comparative glance at Part I and Part II of this work shows a great contrast and reveals the progress attained in education in Porto Rico in the last two decades, not a small part of which has been due largely to the centralized control of public education.

CHAPTER IX

THE TEACHING PROFESSION

A. PERIOD OF READJUSTMENT TO OCTOBER 1901

The Need of Trained Teachers to Begin the System. When the United States officials began to reform the system of public instruction, one of the most serious problems they encountered was the question of teachers. The problem was not only one of teacher training, but also of what to do with the Spanish teachers they found. The first school law, issued May 1, 1899, under the governorship of General Guy V. Henry, organized public instruction from the elementary school to the university, and established new requirements for teachers in the public school system, that is, requirements for elementary, secondary and university teachers. Although there was no university, there were no secondary schools, and very few and poor elementary schools, without American trained teachers to teach in them, yet the law was supposed to go into effect, "on and after the beginning of the fall term of 1899."

Provisions of the Law Regarding Teachers: University Teachers. "Every professor, instructor, or teacher of any grade in the University of Porto Rico or any allied professional school except the School of Commerce, who receives a salary from the public funds, must possess (a) a degree from a college or gymnasium of America or Europe, or a diploma equivalent to such a degree, showing that he has completed satisfactorily a course of at least three years in subjects higher than the secondary school studies, and (b) a degree as doctor or an equivalent degree from a university of America or of Europe of standing, showing that he has completed a course of at least two years in the special subject in which he will give instruction."

Secondary and Normal School Teachers. "Every professor, instructor or teacher of any grade in any secondary school of Puerto Rico (normal school or high school) except critic teachers, and teachers of drawing, sloyd, manual training or music, must possess the qualifications stated in clause (a) of the first paragraph of this

act. Critic teachers in normal schools must be graduates of normal schools where model school work is done in connection with professional training, or graduates of pedagogical courses in a college of repute with experience in model school work."

Elementary School Principals. "Principals of graded schools must be college or normal school graduates."

Graded School Teachers. "Graded school teachers must be graduates of normal schools, or graduates of secondary schools preparing for the best American universities with at least one year's experience as a teacher."

Rural School Teachers. "Rural school teachers must possess certificates granted by the Bureau of Education upon examination in accordance with the regulation provided for in this act."

"Any teacher possessing qualification for teaching in schools of a higher grade may teach in a school of a lower grade."¹

The provisions of this law regarding teachers remind one of the 1865 decree, setting qualifications for teachers to go into effect in four months, when there were no teachers of such qualifications nor ways to prepare them. It does not seem the work of an American, but it was. The law was good but there were no teachers who could qualify to teach, therefore the necessity of securing teachers in order to continue with public education.

Action of the Board of Education. In order to be able to open the schools in the fall term, the Board of Education had to certify teachers, and in August 21, 1899, at the regular meeting of the Board the report of a committee upon teachers' titles, previously appointed, was adopted as follows: "that in admitting new candidates to the profession of teaching, certificates shall be granted only upon examination or upon diplomas from reputable normal schools, colleges, and universities; that the standard of examinations shall be maintained equal to that observed in New York State, Ohio, Minnesota, California and other States of the Union.

"That all teachers of Porto Rico holding superior titles under the former law shall receive principals' certificates.

"That all teachers holding rural or auxiliary titles under the former law shall receive rural certificates."²

Examinations. Moreover the Board established certain regula-

¹The School Laws of the Island of Porto Rico, May 1, 1899, Part II. Laws concerning Public Instruction, Sec. V.

²56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 31.

tions for teachers' examinations upon which rural, graded and principals' certificates were granted. The examinations embraced Spanish and English, arithmetic, geography, United States history and school methods; while for a principals' certificate especial examinations in algebra, geometry and physical science were required.³ As a result of this, by January 1900, 162 certificates were granted by the Insular Board of Education; 775 were granted in exchange for titles held under Spanish Law; 26 upon examination, and the rest were granted to American teachers who taught in English.⁴ Thus the problem of supply of teachers was solved for the time being.

Summer School, 1899. In the meantime the Board of Education began to make provisions for the training of teachers and opened in July 1899 a summer school for teachers. The work was confined to the grammar school subjects. There were 49 boys and 27 girls in attendance in the practice school held during the forenoon, and about 30 teachers attended these sections for observation and practice, and attended special afternoon classes in the grammar school subjects and English.⁵

The Model and Training School. The summer school opened in the same rooms, September 24, 1899, with a high school department. All instruction was given in English and all text books were in English. It must be kept in mind that the Porto Rico pupils knew very little of this language. The school had a good faculty of eight teachers. In January 1900 it was moved to a twelve room frame building in Puerta de Tierra, erected for its accommodation, when a department of Spanish under Dr. Antonio Rosell, and a department of biology were established. There were other plans for the school and among other things it was to be used as a practice school for the training of teachers. A kindergarten training class of young women was started. The school and all its plans came to an end July 1, 1900, when fire destroyed the building.⁶ This school had no relation to the school system, being an institution unique in its character. During the year of its existence it was not successful, having no aim, and very little is known of its accomplishments during the year. Dr. Groff said, regarding it, that "It was originally started as a school for American children." Of its work he said, "It was a

³56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 41.

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 36.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 42.

⁶*Ibid.*, p. 36.

laughing stock for all who knew anything about schools, but I thought it best to let it die easily."⁷

The Fajardo Normal School. In July 1899 the director of public instruction issued a call to all the municipalities to issue a bonus for the establishment within their jurisdiction of a normal and industrial school. The municipality of Fajardo made an offer of \$20,000 for the school, provided the insular government would appropriate a like amount. The insular government accepted the offer and a committee of the Board of Education inspected the Fajardo sites. The Board authorized the purchase of over 93 acres of land, and plans and specifications were prepared by the department of public works for an eight-room school building and a four-room shop and laboratory, to be erected immediately. It was the design of the committee that this institution should furnish manual training courses and courses in agriculture and that there should be connected with it a model school for practice teaching and a normal department.⁸

Nothing more was done for almost a year and the citizens of Fajardo were rather impatient at the delay. In the summer of 1900 Dr. Groff authorized the opening of a summer session to be maintained three months. One teacher was to do the entire work, but later another was appointed and a small primary school was opened. The school continued until October 1, 1900, but its work had no value for professional training. It was a normal school in name only, as with few exceptions the pupils should have been in the public schools and were not prepared to take up professional work.⁹

Normal Course Begun in Fajardo. As will be noted by consulting the map, Fajardo is situated on the extreme north-eastern corner of the Island and very difficult of access. To reach it from the other parts of the Island was very expensive. In this respect the choice of the location was an unfortunate one as the average teacher candidate could not afford the trip. Nevertheless the school was opened October 1, 1900, with a faculty of five trained teachers. It was equipped and prepared to receive one hundred pupils, but less than twenty enrolled at the opening of the school. The small enrollment was due in no slight degree to its inaccessibility. The industrial department was not opened. The normal department offered the following course of study:

⁷*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1900, p. 20.*

⁸58th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 37.

⁹*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1901, pp. 41-42.*

PREPARATORY YEAR

First Semester: (1) Professional Studies: school management, psychology and observations in model departments and child study (four hours a week). (2) Language: English grammar. Spanish grammar (four hours a week). (4) Science: Descriptive geometry, simple biology (three hours a week). (5) Art: Penmanship, composition (English), music, modeling in clay (four hours a week). (6) Civic Studies: History of Porto Rico (three hours a week).

Second Semester: (1) Professional Studies: Methods, standard psychology, observation in model department continued (four hours a week). (2) Language: English grammar, Spanish grammar, elocution (four hours a week). (3) Mathematics: Arithmetic (three hours a week). (4) Science: Physical geography, psychology and hygiene (three hours a week). (5) Art: Composition (English and Spanish), music, drawing (four hours a week). (6) Civic Studies: History of the United States, colonial and Revolutionary epochs (three hours a week).

JUNIOR YEAR

First Semester: (1) Professional Studies: History of ancient education, principles of education (four hours a week). (2) Language: American literature (three hours a week). (3) Mathematics: Algebra (three hours a week). (4) Science (three hours a week). (5) Art: Composition (English and Spanish), drawing, plastic modeling (four hours a week). (6) Civic Studies; United States history, administration epoch (three hours a week).

Second Semester: (1) Professional Studies: History of modern education; educational theory (4 hours a week). (2) Language: Spanish and English literature (3 hours a week). (3) Mathematics: Geometry (3 hours a week). (4) Science: Biology (3 hours a week). (5) Art: Composition (English and Spanish); water colors, gymnastics (4 hours a week). (6) Civic Studies: General history (modern); elementary civics (3 hours a week).

SENIOR YEAR

To be deferred.¹⁰

The school was not a success, first because it was inaccessible and only a small number of students could be attracted to it; second, the faculty was not in harmony; and third, the people would not support a school in Fajardo. They could not entertain the idea of its establishment in such an inaccessible place.¹¹ Doctor Brumbaugh, being convinced of these facts, began to take steps to remove the normal school to Rio Piedras, seven miles from the city of San Juan. After some legal questions had been solved the site for the new normal school was secured and a building begun immediately, which was ready for occupancy May, 1902. In the meantime the Insular Normal School began its work October 28, 1901, in the Governor's palace in Rio Piedras. Such was the beginning of the normal school, the nucleus of what is to-day the University of Porto Rico.¹²

¹⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1901, pp. 42-43.*

¹¹*Ibid.*, 1901, p. 43.

¹²*Ibid.*,

Teachers' Institutes. The first teachers' institutes, sometimes called summer institutes and summer schools due to the length of the session, lasting several weeks in the summer, were another agency the department of education used for the training of teachers. In the summer of 1900 a group of teachers were sent throughout the Island to conduct a series of teachers' institutes. For many reasons, which are not necessary to our study, these institutes were a failure.¹³

Although the educated classes in Porto Rico have always appreciated the schools and have done their part to support education, the masses of the people which are of course in the majority, have been ignorant and have not realized the need of an education. The school to them was an institution imposed upon the people for reasons not apparent to them, hence the need of propaganda to bring the claims of the public schools before the masses of the people. The Teachers' Institutes, or Teachers' Conferences, as they were generally called, were used by the Department of Education to make propaganda in behalf of the public schools. Early in the spring of 1901 the Commissioner organized a series of conferences to be given throughout the Island the purpose of which was not so much to talk about methods or show the native teachers how to teach, as simply to spread the gospel of the public schools.

The Commissioner invited two American educators to accompany him in the campaign to popularize public education. The Honorable O. T. Carson, ex-school commissioner of the State of Ohio, ex-president of the N. E. A., and editor of the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, and the Honorable Henry Houck, for many years deputy superintendent of public instruction for the State of Pennsylvania, were secured to accompany the Commissioner. They volunteered their services without compensation and reached the Island March 8, 1901. The meetings began in San Juan and Rio Piedras with five sessions on the eighth and ninth of March. They were well attended. General educational ideals were presented and the teachers were led to understand something of the purpose of an educational system. Several mass meetings were held in Mayagüez, San German, Yauco, Ponce and other towns with marked success. Many teachers attended, but above all citizens whom the speakers wished to interest in the public school.¹⁴

Summer Normal Institute. In the summer of 1901, a summer normal institute was held in San Jaun for ten weeks. The attendance

¹³*Ibid.*, 1900, p. 16.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, 1901, pp. 25-28.

was so large that no room in the school buildings was adequate for the opening exercises. The city theater was secured and an attendance of over 1600 crowded in. Eight hundred thirty-six people were enrolled as pupils, instructed by a faculty of 16 teachers. The pupils were school teachers in active service and candidates for teachers' licenses. At the close of the session an examination was held and there were issued 161 new rural certificates, 26 graded and 8 principals certificates. The certified teachers who attended the sessions returned to their work better prepared to perform their respective tasks.

Too much can not be said in praise of those who attended the summer institute, many of them making great sacrifice in order to attend and to improve themselves. The curriculum included English, Spanish, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, history of the United States and Porto Rico, physiology, methods and management in teaching, and nature study. There was also maintained a primary school which served as a model for the teachers. Many of the candidates not successful in securing a license to teach entered the Insular normal school in the autumn.¹⁵

Porto Rican Teachers in the United States. Another method used by the department of education to improve the preparation of the teachers was to secure for a number of them the rare opportunity of study in the United States. During the summer vacation of 1899, forty-eight Porto Rican teachers were granted government transportation to the United States in order that they might study the English language and American school methods. Many of these teachers returned after the vacation was over and rendered excellent service in the schools. The States of New York, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Minnesota offered free tuition to Porto Rican students in their normal schools, and the Chautauqua Assembly granted a like privilege.¹⁶

Besides the teachers, picked youths from the public schools were sent to preparatory schools in the United States. By the summer of 1901, 219 pupils had been sent North and were under the personal oversight of the Commissioner of Education.¹⁷ Some of these pupils were sent to very good schools, while others were not so fortunate, mistakes having been made in selecting some of the schools. Never-

¹⁵*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1901, pp. 28-35.

¹⁶56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 42.

¹⁷*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1901, pp. 74-75.

theless the majority of them succeeded, and many of them returned later and made and are making their contribution to the educational as well as to the general progress of the Island.

First American Teachers in Porto Rico. This account of the early efforts put forth to train teachers for the public schools of Porto Rico would not be complete without some reference to the first American teachers who came to Porto Rico. They were pioneers in a strange land, among peoples of a different language and in an entirely different civilization from what they were accustomed to at home. The first American teachers in Porto Rico have been severely criticized by some, while more thoughtful people have been more charitable in their judgment and have not forgotten to acknowledge their services and rendered them due praise. Many a girl came from the United States all alone and was assigned to a small central town, where she knew no one, heard no English. Often she became homesick, resigned and went home. She was charged with being an adventurer and an undesirable teacher. Nevertheless, it was the most natural thing for her to get homesick under the circumstances, to want to go home, and to do so if she could. At the same time there were adventurers, teachers who were not the most desirable nor the best prepared. It is well to quote here Dr. Brumbaugh's evaluation of these teachers as the opinion of the man who came in contact with their work. He said in part, "These American teachers at the outset were mostly young men who came to Porto Rico with the American army. None of them knew Spanish, and some of them knew little English. Gradually the quality was improved by the addition of groups of teachers, mostly women, from the United States . . . These teachers were selected solely upon application and testimonial, and were not always desirable persons for the work nor typical representatives of the vast army of American teachers, but some of them merit the warmest commendation and the greatest respect. Under circumstances most unusual and conditions most unpropitious they entered upon their labors and did nobly. Living often in a remote village, without a single associate who spoke the English language, they struggled on and accomplished much good. One group deserves no credit—the seekers after novelty and new experiences, mere adventurers, who imposed upon the administration and the children and who used the salary and position of teacher solely to see a new country for a year and then return. Fortunately these are gone and the better teachers remain to carry on a really

helpful and arduous task. The people of Porto Rico patiently bore with these adventurers and quietly longed for their departure."¹⁸

B. ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION SINCE 1901

The Normal School. The normal school being established in the Governor's summer palace at Rio Piedras opened its first session the last of October 1901 with over 100 pupils. Of these several were rejected and others allowed to try the course of study for longer or shorter periods, but finally were rejected as better fitted for the work in the common schools. Of those who remained, thirteen were poorly equipped, but were allowed to remain and formed a preparatory class, following the curriculum of the eighth grade in the public schools. The enrollment for the year was ninety-one, thirteen in the preparatory year, sixty-two in the first year and sixteen in the second year.¹⁹ On May 30, 1902 the school was moved to the normal school building especially constructed for the purpose.

The new building offered great advantages to the pupils. It had large and airy class rooms, an auditorium seating three hundred persons, two gymnasiums, one for boys and one for girls—equipped with showerbaths and lockers and all necessary appliances for physical training, plenty of room for laboratories to be installed as needed and a large room for a library.²⁰ In its new quarters the normal school opened its regular session September 29, 1902, with an enrollment of 136 and offering a three-year course beside the preparatory year, that is, three years after graduation from the eighth grade. The school graduated its first class of four, June 19, 1903.²¹

*The Normal Department of the University of Porto Rico.** The normal school was established, at work, and producing results. In the meantime by act of the legislature, the University of Porto Rico was founded, March 12, 1903.²² The normal school was reorganized as the normal department of the University of Porto Rico to comply with the law, which provided for "a normal department to be known as the insular normal school for the training of teachers in the subjects

¹⁸*Report of the Commissioner, of Education, 1901*, pp. 14-15.

¹⁹*Ibid.*, 1902, p. 121. Report of the Principal of the Insular Normal School.

²⁰*Ibid.*, p. 36.

²¹*Ibid.*, 1904 pp. 166-167. Report of the Principal of Insular N. S.

*See chapter on Secondary and Higher Education.

²²An act establishing the University of Porto Rico, to amend section 973 (923) of the Civil Code of Porto Rico and for other purposes. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1903*, p. 251 ff.

taught in the public schools of Porto Rico and to be supported by annual appropriations by the legislative assembly."²³ This act turned over to the Board of Trustees of the University of Porto Rico the insular normal school, consisting at this time of the main normal school building, a practice school in its own building, an agricultural station building, a principal's residence, about 100 acres of land together with their equipment.

The insular normal school thus became the normal department of the University and the only department in operation at the time the University was founded.²⁴ The entrance requirements were now advanced to the completion of the eighth grade or examinations on the subjects of that grade. Above this the normal department offered a three-year course, and a course for rural teachers was also established.²⁵

In 1905 the regular normal course was increased to four years beyond the eighth grade. At the end of the first two years those who applied and passed the required examinations were granted certificates to teach in the graded schools, and those completing the four-year course received the diploma of the school which entitled the bearer to a principalship in the graded schools after one year of teaching experience.²⁶

In the meantime a school of eight grades had been developed in connection with the normal department, which served as a model and practice school to the normal students. The seventh and eighth grades, moreover, served as preparatory grades for the normal course. The University continued offering this course of study for the preparation of teachers until 1910. By that time the department was well established, had turned out many teachers and was being patronized by the young people more and more. During the nine years of its existence it had graduated 82 students in the four-year course, and had issued 299 certificates to teach in the graded schools to those who had pursued only a two-year course. While the tuition in the normal department had always been and still is gratis, students were further assisted by a number of scholarships granted each year by the insular legislature to the most meritorious as well as most needy students in the public schools, and tended to cover the cost of board in Rio Piedras. The school library had grown in the

²³*Ibid.*, Section 18.

²⁴*Ibid.*, 1904, p. 22.

²⁵*Ibid.*, 1904, p. 298.

²⁶*Ibid.*, 1906, pp. 100-102.

meantime and had 4,000 volumes. The course of the practice school had been raised to nine years, serving as a preparatory course to entrance in the normal department.²⁷

At the reorganization of the University in 1910, the entrance requirements of the normal department were advanced to the completion of the ninth grade. The normal courses after that consisted of two and four years each, leading to the graded teacher's certificate and to the diploma of the normal respectively.²⁸ Even against this advance in the entrance requirements, the enrollment of the school increased, and by 1915 the normal department of the University alone had 499 students.

The academic requirements for admission and graduation remained the same until 1915 when the completion of the tenth grade was required for entrance, the elementary course of two years was eliminated, and all students pursued a four-year course, thus giving the equivalent of two years of college work to all graduates. Graduates of the high schools, desiring to enter the normal department, were admitted and given a two-year normal course.²⁹ This change was felt immediately in the enrollment of the normal department of the university. Very few students enrolled in the first and second year courses because nearly all candidates preferred to complete the high school work and obtain their diplomas before entering the two-year course for high school graduates.³⁰

Because of the need of rural teachers the normal department formulated and adopted a special course for rural teachers to go into effect in 1917. The special course consisted of work in agriculture, manual training and home economics, elementary science, rural school management, rural school methods, and rural hygiene and sanitation.³¹ This course proved to be a success, and was a move for specialization in teacher training. In addition to this course, and to those preparing principals of graded schools and teachers of home economics, plans began to be studied for the preparation of teachers of the primary, intermediate, and upper grades of the elementary school, together with a scheme of guidance for the purpose of aiding the prospective teacher in his selection of a field of specialization.³²

Graduates of the normal school department who wished to prepare

²⁷*Ibid.*, 1910, pp. 36-38.

²⁸*Ibid.*, p. 36.

²⁹*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 391.

³⁰*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 503.

³¹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1916, p. 409.

³²*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 503.

themselves for administrative positions or to teach in high or continuation schools, were given the opportunity to enter the College of Liberal Arts,³³ with the provisional rank of Juniors, and to complete the course in two years, receiving the degree of B.A. in Education. The University practice school had developed by this time a four-year high school course and those preparing to teach in high schools practiced in the University High School.³⁴

In order to articulate better the university with the public school system, during the academic year 1917-1918, questionnaires were distributed to all supervisors of schools and to former students of the normal school who were teaching in the public schools. The questionnaires were devised to secure the criticism of former students and representatives of the public school system, on the courses offered at the University for the training of teachers.³⁵ This was in preparation for the reorganization of the courses of study which took place in 1919. At that reorganization the normal department became the Normal College of the University of Porto Rico with its eight-grade elementary practice school and the University High School.³⁶

The Normal College. Graduation from an accredited high school and the attainment of a specific standard of scholarship are the requisites for admission to the Normal College, with the exception of the course for the preparation of rural teachers. The Normal College gives a two-year course for high school graduates leading to the English graded teacher's license; a three-year course for high school graduates, for the preparation of special teachers of home economics leading to a diploma and license to teach home economics in elementary and continuation schools. A supplementary one-year course in home economics leads to the degree of B.A. in Education and prepares for teaching of home economics in high schools.

The Normal College offers two other courses leading to the degree of B.A. in Education—one a two-year course supplementing the normal course and preparing for teaching in public and continuation and high schools, and the other a four-year course for high school graduates preparing for high school teaching and principalships. Those who have satisfactorily completed the ninth grade in the public schools or any accredited high or continuation school

³³See Part II, Chapter on Secondary and Higher Education.

³⁴*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1917*, p. 503.

³⁵*Ibid.*, 1918, p. 562.

³⁶*Ibid.*, 1919, pp. 609-611.

may be admitted to the special one-year course for the preparation of rural teachers.³⁷

Since its foundation, to the end of the academic year 1920, the Normal School issued the following certificates:

Degree of B.A. in Education.....	2
Elementary Normal Certificates.....	1007
Rural Teachers' Certificates.....	296
Normal School Diplomas.....	420

Total.....1725³⁸

Teachers Trained in High Schools. Besides the normal school, the Ponce high school offered normal courses for several years and at the completion of the high school course graduates were entitled to the graded license to teach in the public schools.³⁹ The Ponce high school prepared altogether 117 students to teach. In 1919 an act was passed by the legislature authorizing the Commissioner of Education to establish training courses in high schools for rural teachers and for other purposes.⁴⁰ As a result special courses for the preparation of rural teachers were offered in the high schools of San Juan, Ponce, Mayagüez and Aguadilla and a total of 57 teachers' licenses were issued on the basis of high school diplomas in June 1920.⁴¹

Improvement of Teachers in Service. The summer schools have been another agency employed to prepare teachers. Many graduates from high schools have attended the summer schools held in Rio Piedras and Mayagüez and have qualified for the rural teachers license and for the license of teacher of manual training. The teachers' conferences and institutes have been another agency which has contributed greatly to the improvement of the teachers in the service. This was specially true in the early days of the American occupation, due to the fact that the teachers had not had professional training and the meetings served not only as a source of professional inspiration but also as a source of instruction. However, with the development of professional training the emphasis was shifted slowly from the teachers' institutes to teachers' meetings and conferences.

³⁷ *Annual Catalogue and Announcement of the University of Porto Rico, 1921-1922*, pp. 33-34.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 104-32.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, 1919, p. 581.

³⁹ *Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1913*, p. 327.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, 1920, p. 421.

In the academic year 1919-1920 the institutes were revived again. In the beginning of the school system the outside speaker came to talk to the teachers and magnified public education as the best means to prepare a people for citizenship and self-government; in the later days the question of method and insular educational problems have occupied the attention of the teachers in their meetings. In the beginning the speakers who generally came from the continent and did not know Spanish, nor the specific problems of the Island, presented to the teachers general educational ideals through interpreters, the teachers receiving instruction at second hand and often very unsatisfactorily; in the later days native teachers have taken over this work and in their teachers' meetings, conferences and institutes, they deal with the practical problems which they encounter in their daily work.

Propaganda Conferences. Reference has already been made to teachers' conferences when Dr. Brumbaugh was Commissioner, but in order to appreciate the contrast better, other accounts of teachers' meetings and conferences at the beginning will be cited in comparison with those of the present day. Doctor Samuel McCune Lindsay, Commissioner in 1902, reporting on teachers' meetings and conferences says: "In addition to the conference of the supervisors it was found advisable to continue the plan of holding a series of meetings in different parts of the island for the purpose of raising a healthy and active interest in normal education and in the public school.

"For this purpose the commissioner invited Dr. James Earl Russell, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, one of the best training schools for teachers in the country, and himself a man widely known as a leader of educational thought in the States, and Dr. C. Hanford Henderson, a pioneer worker, writer and thinker in the work of manual training, physical culture and other highly important features of modern education, to accompany him on a brief trip to visit some of the schools of the island. These gentlemen very kindly consented to give their services without remuneration and in this way do what they could to assist the educational work in Porto Rico. Their travelling expenses were paid by the Department and no other returns were made for the very valuable services which they rendered, except the grateful thanks since expressed in many ways from teachers and parents in the leading towns in Porto Rico.

"For eight days they held meetings and gave stirring addresses,

and by reason of favorable weather and excellent preparation for travelling facilities we succeeded in covering a large territory. Starting from San Juan we addressed meetings of pupils, teachers, and general public in the school houses and public squares of the following places: Manati, Arecibo, Camuy, Quebradillas, Aguadilla, Mayagüez, Cabo-Rojo, Sabana Grande, San German, Yauco, Ponce, Cayey, Coamo, Rio Piedras and San Juan. One day as many as seven meetings were held, and, notwithstanding the physical fatigue of this rapid trip, we met with such enthusiastic reception wherever we went that all felt encouraged and repaid. The general public is much more interested in matters of public education in Porto Rico than in most communities in the States."⁴²

Teachers' Conferences and Meetings Today. In contrast with the above meetings of propaganda, Dr. Paul G. Miller, the last Commissioner, reports:—"The department conducted three-days teachers' institutes in nine different centres. The character of the meetings was inspirational as well as instructional. The day meetings were devoted to the observation and discussion of model demonstration classes, as well as to the treatment of professional topics relating to the management, methods and principles of teaching. Representatives of the department and of the University of Porto Rico took part as conductors, and gave addresses on important phases of school work. Local and outside speakers were employed."⁴³

During the academic year 1919-1920, there were held 1975 teachers' meetings. The purpose of those meetings was to discuss educational questions more or less common to all. Demonstration classes followed by analysis and criticism were used. Some of the topics discussed in the teachers' meetings were: Teaching of oral English in the primary grades; Teaching of arithmetic in the primary grades; Proper assignment of lessons in the intermediate and upper grades; Proper motivation of the work in all grades; The Zaner system of penmanship; Teaching of reading and writing of Spanish in the first grade; Making the work in agriculture of most practical benefit to country people; The Home Garden movement; The Rural Uplift movement. During the year there were held: 1,015 urban teachers meetings; 773 rural teachers meetings; 187 general meetings; total, 1,975 teachers meetings.⁴⁴

⁴²*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1902*, p. 38.

⁴³*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920*, p. 429.

⁴⁴*Ibid.*, p. 430.

Professional Reading Courses. Still another agency which has contributed greatly to the improvement of teachers in service is the professional reading courses. In 1899, the Board of Education realized the value of this sort of instruction, but had to contend with the fact that there was no professional literature in Spanish to put in the hands of the teachers. To remedy this, the Board began to publish in pamphlet form what were called Teachers' Bulletins, sometimes in English, sometimes in Spanish and other times in both languages. These little bulletins were sent around to the teachers bearing instructions on topics such as the following:—The outline of the Course of Study;⁴⁵ Grading Pupils and arranging Programs; How to teach Reading; Plant Lessons, etc.⁴⁶ Good Health and How to Attain It; The Food We Eat; The Liquid We Drink; The Air We Breathe; etc.⁴⁷ The pamphlet form of instruction gave place to the *Teachers' Manual*, a book of six hundred pages in English and Spanish, prepared by the Board of Education, the purpose of which was, "to place in the hands of the teachers and school officials of this Island a brief account in Spanish of the educational thought and literature of the system of school organization at present prevailing in the United States."⁴⁸

As the teachers learned English current professional literature in that language began to be introduced. Later as the normal school developed, it began to introduce and encourage the reading of professional literature and since then the Department of Education has had as one of its chief objective, what it terms, "Professional Reading Courses." The last Commissioner of Education reports as follows with respect to Professional Reading Courses: "During the academic year 1919-1920, the following books were read in the reading courses. For rural teachers: Woofter, *Teaching in Rural School*; Huyke, *Niños y Escuelas*. For urban teachers: Kendall and Mirick, *How to Teach the Fundamental Subjects*; Freeland, *Modern Elementary School Practice*. Many teachers subscribe to leading magazines such as: *Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*; *Primary Education*; *The Elementary School Journal*. A certificate was issued to every teacher who successfully completed one of the prescribed courses."⁴⁹

⁴⁵Puerto Rico, Board of Education; *Teachers' Bulletin* No. 1. San Juan, 1899.

⁴⁶*Ibid.*, No. 2. San Juan, 1899.

⁴⁷*Ibid.*, No. 3. San Juan 1899.

⁴⁸*Teachers' Manual for the Public Schools of Porto Rico*, Silver Burdette & Co., 1900, preface.

⁴⁹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1920, p. 430.

The Porto Rico School Review. *The Porto Rico School Review*, a monthly publication in Spanish and in English, published by the Department of Education and the Porto Rico Teachers' Association, keeps the teachers informed on general educational progress and on educational problems in Porto Rico. This publication goes to almost all the teachers ten times a year to furnish material for thought and professional growth, with editorial articles and discussions on such topics as the following: Opportunities for the Average Pupil; A Suggestion for a New Rural School System; The Spelling of English by Porto Rican Pupils; First Steps in Supervision; Exercises to Measure the Progress of the Pupils; Oral English; Moral and Civic Education; The Junior High School; Post War Notes of War Work; Does it Pay to Remain in School? Extracts from Resolutions of the N. E. A., etc.⁵⁰

Commissioner Miller, addressing the teachers, speaks of *The Review* in the following terms: "That the *Porto Rico School Review*, the official organ of the Department of Education of Porto Rico and the Teachers Association, has continued to be of service to the teachers is evident. The subscription list includes the names of most of the teachers, but each and all should feel that it is a duty and a privilege to contribute to the financial support of this publication. This magazine serves as a valuable medium through which to bring to the attention of people outside of Porto Rico what we are doing and trying to do in education, as well as a genuine aid to our own professional advance and progress... It reaches most of the prominent school men of the United States and of the Spanish-American countries and most of the educational publications are on the exchange list."⁵¹

Teachers' Association of Porto Rico. No less important in the training and improvement of teachers and in the general improvement of the teaching profession is the work of the Teachers' Association of Porto Rico. This body meets once a year in assembly, when for several days general educational problems as well as local are discussed, inspiring addresses by men and women in and outside of the teaching profession are listened to, and measures are adopted and put into execution through its different committees to raise the general level of the teaching profession. Perhaps the most helpful meeting in the history of the association was that held in San Juan, December 26-29, 1919. The Commissioner of Education called a meeting a

⁵⁰Taken from the contents of several issues of the *Porto Rico School Review*.

⁵¹Taken from the *Porto Rico School Review*, April 1919, p. 52.

the supervisors of schools and municipal commissioners to be held at the same time. Arrangements were made for both joint and sectional meetings. It was the first time that representatives of the teaching profession had come together with the supervisory staff as well as the local administrative officials who represent the people.

The conference did much toward promoting good will, mutual understanding and a new viewpoint on educational problems, which were considered from the standpoint of the entities represented rather than from that of one only. The following topics indicate the character of the subjects discussed: Improving the Material Conditions of the Schools; What Constitutes a Well Equipped Rural School; Better Health for the Pupils; The School and the Community; Better School Attendance; How can the Work of the Rural Schools be Improved in Spite of Present Obstacles; Making Education Practical; The Professional Status of the Teacher; Moral Problems of the School; Present-Day Educational Tendencies; Aims and Activities of the Junior Red Cross; A Proposed Reorganization of the School on the 6-3-3 Plan; Physical Education; The Insular Interscholastic Athletic Meet.⁵²

This wide range of subjects shows the broad interests of the Association and the fact that the meetings of the Association are not devoted entirely to the economic interests of the teachers, a subject which prevails often in meetings of teachers' associations.

Study and Travel Abroad. Study and travel outside of the Island, generally in the United States, have contributed to the general training of the teachers as well as to their improvement in service. Many young men and women have received their entire training in the United States and have returned to teach in the public schools, while others have studied and travelled during their vacation. Excursions of teachers have been conducted. Perhaps the most popular of these which deserves mention was the trip of the Porto Rican teachers to the United States in 1904. Commissioner Lindsay made arrangements with the presidents of Harvard and Cornell Universities to have about five hundred teachers study in their universities during a summer school of six weeks. He also made arrangements with the War Department to have them transported to the United States at a charge of a dollar a day while on the government transport.

The teachers left Porto Rico in two transports June 26, 1904.

⁵²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 429.*

One transport proceeded direct to Boston while the other went direct to New York. On their arrival they were received very cordially by the officials of the cities and by the presidents of the universities. The universities left nothing to be desired in their efforts to serve the teachers. After six weeks of residence work, on August 9 they left for Philadelphia and from there went on to Washington. The visit to the national capital was so interesting to the teachers that a quotation on the experiences of that visit is fitting.

The Commissioner in his report to the Governor said in part, "Upon their arrival in Philadelphia they were taken to Washington where they spent a most enjoyable day in visiting the Capitol and the Congressional Library. They were appropriately entertained at luncheon at the Arlington Hotel through the generosity of a representative committee of citizens headed by Hon. H. B. F. Macfarland, one of the commissioners of the District, and Dr. Roland P. Falkner, at that time already appointed as my successor in Porto Rico, to take office on October 1, and by prominent representatives of the Trades League and of the Business Men's Association of Washington. After luncheon and a brief period of speech making, the entire party were received at the White House by President Roosevelt. The cordiality of his reception made a deep impression, as likewise did his earnest words when he addressed the teachers in a body, as follows:

'I wish to greet you with all my heart at the national capital, It is my earnest wish, as it was the wish of my lamented predecessor, and it is the wish of the people of the United States, that only un-mixed good shall come to the people of Porto Rico because of their connection with this country. I greet you with peculiar pleasure and interest, because this body and those who, like you, are engaged in the work of education in Porto Rico, are doing that work which more than any other is vital to the future of the island. We must have education in its broadest, deepest sense—education of the heart and soul, as well as of the mind—in order to fit any people to do its duty among the free peoples of progress in the world. And I trust that you here, you teachers, you men and women, engaged in preparing the next generation to do its work, realize fully the weight of responsibility resting upon you. Accordingly as you here in this room and your colleagues do your work well or ill depend as to how the next generation of Porto Ricans shall do their work in the world. I am glad to see you because of the very fact that there is this responsibility upon you. Nothing in the world comes to people who

will not work. Nothing worth the having comes to those who do not or are not willing to make an effort to get it; and I hail you here because you represent that great body of your fellows in Porto Rico who are making every effort to fit themselves physically, mentally and morally to do the best work of which they are capable in the world. I greet you and welcome you here.'"⁵³

It should not be forgotten that besides the contributions of the teachers themselves toward defraying the expenses of the tour, which amounted to \$21,175.57, the city of Boston contributed \$9197, New York \$2500, and Philadelphia \$1032. The reception and courtesies extended to the teachers by the universities, the press and the people of the United States, should be held in grateful remembrance by all people of Porto Rico and especially by the teachers of the Island.⁵⁴

Teachers' Examinations. Although the normal college with a regular four-year professional course grew from the little normal school in Fajardo and has done splendid service in the preparation of teachers, yet it has not been the chief source of supply of teachers for the public schools. By far the greatest number of teachers have entered the service by taking special teachers' examinations. In 1919 there were in force 4343 licenses of all grades.⁵⁵ As these licenses have to be renewed from time to time some people leave the profession and renew their licenses later, but this makes a small fraction of the total. Up to 1919, the normal school had issued the following certificates:

Elementary Normal Certificates.....	966
Rural Teachers' Certificates.....	122
Normal School Diplomas.....	377

Total.....	1465
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In other words the normal school had prepared 1465 teachers of all those who have served during the last twenty years. How then, have the schools been provided with teachers? The public schools have depended for teachers on special examinations. Every year teachers' examinations are held, and from this source have come the majority of the teachers. Many of these were only eighth-grade graduates who passed the rural teachers' examinations and secured the graded teachers' certificates; while many graded teachers be-

⁵³*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1904, pp. 20-21.*

⁵⁴For a fuller account see *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1904, Contents.*

⁵⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 558.*

came principals in the same way. These teachers have either studied by themselves, or in private schools, or have attended the summer session for teachers at the University of Porto Rico and have taken the examinations for the different certificates.

A review of the 4343 licenses in force in 1919 shows just how far the school system has depended on examinations to secure teachers, and it will also give an idea of the present academic and professional preparation of teachers.

Degrees from college or university	100
Normal school diplomas, full course	384
Two years normal training	843
One year normal training	231
Upon basis of training	69
High school or academy diploma	39
By examination	2677
Total	4343 ⁵⁶

During the scholastic year 1919-1920 the Department of Education issued 873 teachers licenses' of all kinds as follows:

Principals' licenses on basis of degree of B.A. in Education from the University of Porto Rico, 1920	2
English graded licenses on basis of four years normal course in the University of Porto Rico, 1920	60
English graded licenses on basis of examinations, March 1920	167
Rural certificates on basis of rural course at the University of Porto Rico, Feb. 1920	11
Rural certificates on basis of rural course at the University of Porto Rico, June 1920	197
Rural certificates on basis of course in high schools, June 1920	57
Certificates issued to teachers of English	
On basis of a degree from college or university	18
" " " four years normal training	54
" " " high school or academy diploma or previous license	38
" " " examination	6
High school and special teacher:	
Upon basis of a degree from college or university	51
" " " four-years normal training	63
" " " two-years normal training	14
" " " special training	135
Total	873 ⁵⁷

Besides the above, because of the shortage of teachers of legal qualifications willing to accept positions at salaries available, the Com-

⁵⁶*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 559.

⁵⁷*Ibid.*, 1920, p. 431.

missioner of Education issued during the year provisional non-renewable licenses as follows:

To teachers of English	4
For English graded positions	130
For rural school positions	166
Total	300 ⁵⁸

Although there is a good university offering courses for the preparation of teachers, yet professional training for teachers in Porto Rico has just begun. The majority of the teachers have not been trained in the University, but while in service; while many teachers, especially in the rural schools, have had no training at all and have received provisional licenses from the Department due to the shortage of teachers and in order to keep the schools open.

C. CLASSIFICATION AND PROMOTION OF TEACHERS

Classification. The teachers of Porto Rico have been classified from time to time, that classification being based generally upon academic and professional training and teaching experience. The first school law under the government of the United States classified the teachers into university teachers, secondary school teachers, English supervisors, principals of graded schools, graded school teachers, and rural school teachers.⁵⁹

When it comes to the classification of teachers, the next school law of Porto Rico deals only with the classification of existing teachers at the time, who were the teachers of the common elementary schools. They were classified thus: "The teachers of Porto Rico shall be designated as rural teachers, graded teachers, teachers of English and principal teachers."⁶⁰ Rural teachers were those teaching in rural schools, mostly ungraded; graded teachers were those teaching in any graded schools; English teachers were generally American teachers who devoted all their time to the teaching of English both to teachers and pupils. Principal teachers were those directing graded schools.

As the school system developed the classification was slightly changed. By 1903, the teachers were classified into "Rural and graded teachers, teachers of English, principal teachers and special teachers, the latter class comprising kindergarten teachers, music and

⁵⁸Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 416.

⁵⁹The School Laws of the Island of Porto Rico. Enacted by Order of Gen. Guy V. Henry, San Juan, May 1, 1899. Order V, Sec. 1 to 6.

⁶⁰The School Laws of Porto Rico. Issued by the Dept. of Education April 9, 1901, Sec. 14.

drawing teachers, teachers of sloyd, teachers of trades and special subjects in industrial schools, teachers in the normal and high schools and special school teachers, as teachers of stenography and type-writing and all other teachers not otherwise classified, who may at any time be employed in school work under the direction of the Commissioner of Education."⁶¹

Spanish and English Graded Teachers. The development of the school system and the increasing use of English as the medium of instruction, changed somewhat the classification of graded teachers. They became further classified into Spanish graded teachers and English graded teachers. The former class decreased more and more until the school year 1913-1914 when no Spanish graded schools were allotted.⁶² The Spanish graded teachers left have become the Spanish teachers of to-day, devoting most of their time to the teaching of the Spanish language. The English graded teachers have become regular teachers in the urban graded schools, teaching in both languages according to the grade they are assigned to.

As these teachers became prepared to teach in English and to teach the English language, the function of the teachers of English as a teacher of a special subject decreased, and they were placed in charge of regular grades. Thus today there is no appreciable difference between the English graded teachers and the teachers of English.

Preparatory Teachers. The same classification has continued since then with few exceptions. In 1906, the effort to extend considerably the school system met with difficulty in the inadequate supply of duly certified teachers. To remedy this the legislature established the rank of preparatory teachers, authorizing the Commissioner to issue to not more than one hundred young men and women, who were desirous of becoming regular teachers in the public schools, special licenses valid for the school year as preparatory teachers, entitling the holders to teach in the rural schools.⁶³

Teachers of Agriculture. Previous to the year 1909-1910, agricultural rural schools were maintained in several municipalities. The teacher taught all the subjects of the curriculum for the first, second, and third grades, devoting one or more periods a day to elementary agriculture. These schools were not a success, due chiefly to the youth of the children. During that year a plan was formulated by

⁶¹*Compiled School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1903, Sec. 35.

⁶²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1913, p. 334.

⁶³Hickle, Cary, (Compiler), *The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914 (109).

which the teacher of agriculture gave forty-five minute classes daily to all pupils enrolled in the graded system of the town to which he was assigned from the third grade up and aside from this two hours or more weekly for actual field work.⁶⁴ Thus developed the classification of "Teacher of Agriculture."

Promotions. Provision for promotion from one class to another was made as follows:

Teachers whether rural, graded or principal, who received their licenses to teach under the department of education after the passage of this act, shall be placed in the third class and may not be advanced to the second class until after they have taught three years in the public schools of Porto Rico. Said teachers shall not be advanced to the first class from the second without having taught five years in the public schools of Porto Rico. No period of teaching in the public schools of Porto Rico, prior to July 1, 1903, shall be counted in calculating the length of service; provided, however, that all persons who held a diploma or special certificate from the insular normal school indicating that they have passed successfully at least one year of the regular course of study in the normal school (not including the preparatory year), by reason of the superior advantages which they have enjoyed, shall be admitted, when given a license to teach by the department of education, to the second salaried class, immediately upon beginning their work in the public schools, and provided that all rural, graded, and principal teachers in actual service during the school year 1902-1903 who may be given a license to teach for the school year 1903-1904 shall be assigned to the second class of their respective grades.⁶⁵

This provision was amended March 9, 1905 and March 13, 1913, requiring third class teachers to teach three years in their respective classes before they are promoted to the second class, and providing that "no teacher shall be advanced to the first-class salary from the second, unless they have taught in all five years of their respective classes or higher classes of licenses in the public schools of Porto Rico and unless they shall be the possessors of life certificates."⁶⁶

D. TEACHERS' SALARIES

Salaries of Teachers in Common Schools. Considering the educational advance made in Porto Rico during the last two decades, teachers' salaries have not increased in proportion. The first school law provided the following salaries for teachers in the common schools:—Graded school teachers teaching in a school of four grades and upwards, in towns of more than 5,000 inhabitants received fifty dollars per month. Graded school teachers, teaching in schools

⁶⁴*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1910, p. 11.*

⁶⁵*School Laws of Porto Rico, 1902, Sec. 47*

⁶⁶*The School Laws of Porto Rico, July 1907 (79). The School Laws of Porto Rico, 1914 (127).*

of two grades and upward, in towns of 5,000 inhabitants or less, received forty dollars per month. Teachers in country schools (rural and auxiliary schools) received thirty dollars per month.⁶⁷

By the next legislation the following provision was made regarding teachers salaries:

The salaries of all teachers shall be fixed by the Commissioner of Education, provided that teachers performing similar service shall receive the same salary, and provided further that the salary of any teacher may be increased by the local school board above the sum set by the Commissioner of Education, in which case such increase shall be subject to the approval of the Commissioner of Education, and shall be paid from the "school fund" herein provided and not from the department of education.⁶⁸

The minimum salary of rural teachers was fixed at \$30.00 per school month, of graded teachers and teachers of English at \$40.00 per school month, and of principal teachers, at \$60.00 per school month.⁶⁹ Besides their salaries the local school boards provided the teachers with house rent.⁷⁰

In 1903, a few changes were made in the salaries of teachers. For the purpose of compensation and payment, teachers were assigned by the Commissioner of Education to one of three salaried classes. Rural teachers of the first class received \$35.00 per school month; of the second class, \$30.00 per school month; and of the third class, \$25.00 per school month, as a minimum salary. Graded teachers of the first class received \$55.00 per month; of the second class, \$50.00 per month; and of the third class \$45.00 per month, as a minimum salary. Principal teachers of the first class received \$80.00 per month; of the second class \$75.00 per month; and of the third class \$70.00 per month, as a minimum salary. The salaries of teachers of English were fixed at \$40.00 as a minimum and \$60.00 as a maximum.

Teachers of English and principal teachers from the United States were allowed not more than \$100.00 for traveling expenses to and from the Island. The salaries of special teachers were fixed by the Commissioner of Education with the consent of the Executive Council. The salary of any teacher could be increased by the school board of any district above the sum fixed by the Commissioner, provided the increase was made for a definite period and was approved by the Commissioner of Education, and provided further that it was paid

⁶⁷*School Laws of the Island of Porto Rico* May 1, 1899. An order determining the salaries and payments of teachers, 2, 3, 4.

⁶⁸*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1901, Sec. 15.

⁶⁹*Ibid.*, Secs. 16, 17, 18, 19.

⁷⁰*Ibid.*, Sec. 22.

from the school fund of the local boards. The municipal school board provided residences or house rent for the offices of the school board, and district school superintendents and for all teachers.⁷¹

In 1907, school boards were relieved of the obligation of paying rent to teachers of English, agriculture and other special teachers in whose appointment they had no voice.⁷² The salaries of rural teachers were raised to \$40.00, \$35.00 and \$30.00, first, second, and third classes respectively. All other salaries remained the same.⁷³ Teachers were certified to teach in English, thus became English graded teachers, as differentiated from Spanish graded teachers; they received \$5.00 a month additional salary from the regular minimum fixed by law for the graded teachers.

The salaries of teachers continued static until 1913, when through legislation enacted at the Session of the legislature, school boards were exempted from the payment of house rent to teachers, and a new salary schedule was fixed. The salaries of rural teachers were raised to \$50.00, \$45.00 and \$40.00, first, second, and third classes respectively; those of graded teachers to \$70.00, \$65.00 and \$60.00, first, second and third classes respectively; those of principal teachers to \$90.00, \$85.00 and \$80.00, first, second and third classes respectively, and those of teachers of English to \$90.00, \$85.00 and \$80.00, first, second, and third classes respectively.⁷⁴

The same law made provisions for special remuneration of public school teachers who taught in night schools, as follows:

Persons holding licenses as teachers of English, special teachers, principal or English graded teachers, and graded teachers employed in the night schools shall receive a salary of \$15.00 per each school month of active service in addition to their regular salaries. Persons holding licenses as rural teachers employed in the night schools shall receive a salary of \$10.00 for each school month of active service in addition to their regular salaries. Persons holding licenses of special teachers and employed in industrial night schools shall receive a salary of \$20.00 for each school month of active service in addition to their regular salaries.⁷⁵

During the academic year 1913-1914 there was an average of 2,431 day and 527 night common school teachers working each month for nine months, at an average salary of \$58.91, in contrast with an average of 1855 day and 276 night school teachers, at an average salary of \$54.72 for 1912-1913. But the scholastic year 1913-1914

⁷¹*Compiled School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1903, Secs. 43-49 inclusive and 58-59.

⁷²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1907, pp. 379-380.

⁷³*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, July 1907, Secs. 76-81.

⁷⁴*Ibid.*, (124), (125), (126) and (128).

⁷⁵*Ibid.*, 1914, 129.

was known as "the year of the big budget," having been an increase of \$989,260 over the budget of the previous year. The legislature could not keep up the increase in the budget for the department of education, nor even come up to it, and the appropriation for 1914-1915 fell \$657,255 below that of the previous year. As a result the teachers suffered. The necessity for economy forced a considerable reduction in expenditures during the year. Salaries were reduced quite generally and a few positions eliminated entirely. A total of 325 teaching positions, and the supervisors of manual training and music, were included in the reduction.

Still the crisis continued and the budget for 1915-1916 shows a decrease of \$78,823 from that of the previous year, with a reduction of 20 teaching positions, the supervisor of playgrounds and athletics, further reduction in administration and schools supplies and a ruling from the department of education that after July 1, 1915, the pupils of all high and continuation schools should provide their own text books and supplies.⁷⁶ An examination of Table I in Appendix VII will show that the budget for educational expenditures by the insular government after 1914, did not equal that year's budget, until 1919-1920 when there was a considerable increase.

As a result of the above, the average salaries for the teachers in the common schools after the "year of the big budget" were:⁷⁷

1914-1915 an average of 2330 teachers at average monthly salary of \$49.23									
1915-1916 an	"	"	2323	"	"	"	"	"	48.76
1916-1917 an	"	"	2513	"	"	"	"	"	49.49
1917-1918 an	"	"	2484	"	"	"	"	"	44.61
1918-1919 an	"	"	2755	"	"	"	"	"	47.71
1919-1920 an	"	"	3030	"	"	"	"	"	61.09

Under such circumstances the question of increase in teachers salaries did not come up again until the session of the legislature in 1918, when an act was passed extending the school year to ten months divided into two semesters of five months each and fixing the minimum salary of graded teachers at \$60.00 and of rural teachers at \$40.00.⁷⁸ The question of low salaries was partly relieved by the legislature in 1919 when the educational budget for the ensuing biennium was fixed at \$2,362,653.25 per year, the largest in the history of Porto Rico. This figure represents an increase of \$644,693.25 or 37.3 per cent over the budget for the previous year, and does

⁷⁶*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1916, pp. 345-346.*

⁷⁷Taken from the *Reports of the Governor of Porto Rico* for the respective years.

⁷⁸*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1918, p. 525.*

not include appropriations made for the support of the University or for the erection and repair of buildings. The increase is largely accounted for by an increase in teachers salaries. Rural teachers received a minimum salary of \$540; graded teachers \$720; principals and teachers of English \$900 per annum.⁷⁹

Salaries of Special Teachers. The school laws of Porto Rico provide that "Salaries of special teachers shall be fixed by the Commissioner of Education by and with the consent of the Executive Council in the absence of specific provisions of law fixing the salaries of said special teachers." Accordingly, the Commissioner has fixed the salaries of special teachers and other teaching positions that have developed in the absence of specific provision by law. Such being the case there has not been a definite scale of salaries for special teachers, the Commissioner having full power to name the salary for each individual teacher. However, as a general rule the salaries of continuation and teachers of special subjects have generally been the same or very nearly the same as those of the principals of graded schools. Those of high school teachers vary so much that only the minimum salaries will be cited in this study.

For the last ten years, during which time secondary education has developed, the following have been the minimum and maximum salaries paid:⁸⁰

<i>Year</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
1909-1910.....	\$750.....	\$1500
1910-1911.....	750.....	1500
1911-1912.....	750.....	1500
1912-1913.....	750.....	1500
1913-1914.....	810.....	1800
1914-1915.....	720.....	1600
1915-1916.....	675.....	1600
1916-1917.....	675.....	1800
1917-1918.....	660.....	1800
1918-1919.....	800.....	1900
1919-1920.....	900 ⁸¹	2200 ⁸¹

Teachers Leaving the Service Because of Low Salaries. By far the largest amount of the expenditure has been spent on teachers' salaries, and of these the largest amount has been spent on the salaries of elementary school teachers. Table II of Appendix VII shows a comparative study of expenditures since 1899. The most part of

⁷⁹Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 581.

⁸⁰Taken from the Reports of the Governor of Porto Rico for the respective years.

⁸¹Ten months in the school year.

the school expenditures has gone to pay the salaries of teachers. Yet, as a general rule the salaries of the teaching staff are low, thus making it difficult for the department of education to retain the best teachers. This state of affairs has caused the department and the municipalities much concern.

Although there were in 1919, 4343 licensed teachers, and only 2908 positions to be filled, yet the department could not find the teachers needed. Many teachers are leaving the service for many reasons, but principally because of the low salaries paid. The teachers can successfully compete with other persons in other occupations that are more lucrative. Many young people choose the profession as a stepping stone to something else and after teaching two or three years go on with their studies in preparation for law, medicine, engineering, pharmacy and the other professions. Naturally most of the teachers who leave the service for such reasons are young, the most promising, the most ambitious and the best teachers. Commissioner Roland P. Falkner, speaking of the teachers who were leaving the profession, says: "These constitute a distinct loss to the school as they come from the most intelligent and progressive class of teachers and will probably not take up school work again."⁸²

The last Commissioner, Dr. Paul G. Miller, has the following to say on the subject: "Some have entered other professions. Many have gone into the government service in other departments. Not a few have entered the Federal Government service, while many others occupy business positions. One supervisor reports that nearly all teachers in his district are studying shorthand with a view of securing more remunerative employment. . . . Recently a new tendency has developed. Teachers are not only turning longing eyes toward opportunities in the United States but a considerable number have actually gone there. Their ambition to improve their professional status and material welfare on the continent is highly commendable though it is detrimental to the educational interests of Porto Rico. Many of these young men and women accept business employment in the States, but not a few secure positions as teachers of Spanish."⁸³

During the school year 1918-1919 the department was compelled to give licenses to 898 new teachers in order to be able to keep the schools open. Many of these were only eighth grade graduates,

⁸²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1907, p. 419.*

⁸³*Ibid.*, 1919, p. 558.

others had one year of high school, while others had two years. As a result, the most competent teachers are leaving the service, while others stay in because they cannot earn a living at anything else. This does not mean that all the teachers of Porto Rico to-day belong to this class, but any one familiar with the facts knows that there are many of that kind, and that many are anxious to get some other kind of employment and will do so at their first opportunity.

E. SOCIAL STATUS OF THE TEACHERS

With the extension of the public school system and the larger opportunity for more children to go to school, education has ceased to be the privilege of the few, and is becoming more and more the privilege of the masses. Thousands of children who in Spanish days would never have gone to school because of their poverty, and lack of schools to go to, to-day can not only secure a good common school education but if they show ability can aspire to the learned professions. This has brought education within the reach of all levels of society.

In Spanish days the recruits for the teaching profession came mostly from the privileged few, to-day they come from all levels of society. As was natural the privileged few constituted what was called the first social class, distinguished for its economic position as well as for its intellectual, social, and cultural status. From such class, the teaching profession secured its recruits. To-day the recruits come from all social classes, white and colored, rich and poor. The types of man and woman who entered the teaching profession in Spanish days have also had wider opportunities opened to them and they do not stop to-day with the teaching profession, but aspire to what they call "something higher," to law, medicine, dentistry, business and other professions.

The teachers during the Spanish dominion may be charged with ignorance, inefficiency and laziness, but they had no opportunity to know any better. However, no one who went to school to them would deny the fact that they were men and women of social standing in the community, that they were leaders in their communities and in the Island, and that they were respected by their pupils and by society at large. It meant something to be a teacher then; to-day the teacher is often spoken of as a "mere school teacher." Parents used to teach their children that the teacher was a second father or a second mother and the authority of the teacher was never questioned.

To-day a parent would just as soon pick a quarrel with the teacher as not, and thinks his child clever if it can make trouble for the teacher.

Another reason for the low status of the teacher of to-day is the fact that in Spanish days teaching was a life work occupation; to-day it is not. In the Spanish days the teacher entered the profession young and died in it; to-day, as soon as he enters he begins to plan for the next step. In the first report on education in Porto Rico, the American authorities recognized the fact that teaching was a permanent profession. "Teaching here is looked upon as a life profession by the larger percentage of those employed in the schools."⁸⁴

At the time of the American occupation most of the teachers were above thirty years of age, and many of them old men and women. In one district the average age of twenty-five teachers employed was thirty-nine years,⁸⁵ while at the present time few of the teachers in the service are past middle age and the average is under thirty. The fact that teaching is not considered a profession to-day is one of the influences of the American system of education, and it is to be hoped that as teaching becomes more and more professionalized in the United States, its good influences may be transferred to Porto Rico.

It is also to be hoped that as the requirements for entering the teaching profession advance, salaries are increased, and the pension fund is well established, the future teachers will enter the profession for life, and that teaching will be attractive to the best intellects of the Island.

⁸⁴56th Congress, S. D. 363, p. 56.

⁸⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, pp. 557-58.

CHAPTER X

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION: I. PROBLEMS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Definition. Elementary education in Porto Rico may be defined as that instruction commonly given in an eighth grade, American public elementary school, whether given in a rural school, graded school, agricultural school, industrial school or night school.

A perusal of the first part of this work will give a clear understanding of the organization of education during the Spanish régime. Although the law provided for such an organization, in practice there was none whatever. Each teacher gathered about himself as many pupils as he could, held the school in the largest room of his residence, adopted whatever text-books he wished, received pupils of all ages and degrees of achievement and divided or graded them as he thought best. Each school therefore was different from any other one, so as far as organization was concerned there was none. The organization in practice could be well described as chaotic.

A. ORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Under the Military Government. The first problem, therefore of the American authorities was the reorganization of elementary education. This was not an easy task, for the teachers were not accustomed to work in an orderly, well organized system and it meant dictation on the part of the conquerors. After the American occupation, the schools were allowed to function as they were for one year. The first attempt at a reorganization was made by General Guy V. Henry, July 1, 1899, when he organized a system of rural and graded schools, the pupils being graded so far as possible into six grades, each representing one year's work.¹

Under the Civil Government. This was the official course of study until the legislature made provision for its reorganization. In the

¹The *School Laws of the Island of Porto Rico*, May 1, 1899, pp. 33-34. The course of study is found in *Teachers' Manual, Public Schools of Porto Rico*, issued by the authority of the Insular Board of Education, pp. 524-536.

meantime the organization of administration was so weak and uncertain that the course of study as laid down by the military authorities was not carried out. There was great confusion and practically no system. Elementary education continued chaotic until the establishment of the Civil Government. With the centralization of administration the task of reorganization of the elementary school was made easier. Dr. Brumbaugh reorganized the elementary schools modeled after elementary education in the States and adopted an eight-year course of study, divided into four primary grades and four intermediate grades.² From this organization as a nucleus there developed the eight-year elementary school which has been in operation until to-day.

B. EXTENSION AND FINANCE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The purpose of elementary education is, "To provide experience in meeting the common needs of all, regardless of sex, vocation or social status,"³ and the second great problem which the American authorities encountered was the extension and financing of elementary education, so as to bring the "experience" necessary to all within the reach of the largest number possible. The school census of 1898 showed that the Island had a school population of 322,393 and a total enrollment in the public schools of 29,172,⁴ or only about nine per cent of the school population. To reach this multitude of school children and at the same time provide for the increase in population, was a tremendous task. Such was the second problem that confronted the school authorities in 1898.

Extension in the First Years. The task of providing school facilities to such a number of children was begun. The first two years were a period of readjustment, and no great progress was made in the extension of the school system. With the establishment of the Civil Government the Commissioner of Education began to establish schools aiming to reach as many children of school age as possible. After he had served one year as Commissioner, Dr. Brumbaugh reported to the Governor as follows: "It is a matter of great satisfaction to be able to record that without delay or friction almost 50,000 children began to study in a prepared and complete system

²The course of study may be found in the *Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1902, pp. 55-59.

³Bonser, Frederick Gordon: *The Elementary School Curriculum*, p. 61.

⁴Only one report gives this figure. The others give 21,873.

of schools at the opening of the school year, September 30, 1901."⁵ However, at this time the estimated school population was about 332,497, and the school attendance only about fifteen per cent of that.

Extension until 1914. The increase of the school enrollment during the first few years of American occupation was constant, but the problems of finance and adaptation were such that no great progress could be made in the extension of the system. With his arrival in 1907 as Commissioner of Education, Dr. E. G. Dexter began his administration, adopting as the first of his aims, "to provide instruction in the branches comprising a common school education to all children of school age in the island, this instruction to be both in English and in Spanish."⁶ When he became Commissioner, he found an enrollment of 68,828, but according to his own figures only 44,218 of those attended daily, that is, were in the schools every day of the nine school months.⁷

By 1910 the census of the United States gave the population of Porto Rico as 1,118,012, of which 390,640 were of school age. Of these 121,453 were enrolled in the public schools or over 31 per cent of the school age population. Dr. Dexter continued his policy of extension and when he resigned in 1912, the public schools had an enrollment of 160,657. The next Commissioner continued the same policy until 1914, "the year of the big budget," when the enrollment reached as high as 207,101, the largest number of children of school age ever enrolled in the public schools in the history of Porto Rico. In 1915 the estimated school population was 419,282 so that in 1914 there were about 50 per cent of the school population enrolled in the common schools. The years from 1907 to 1914 can be spoken of as the period of school extension.

It was a period of earnest work on the part of the department of education to reach the largest number possible of children of school age. Double enrollment was resorted to in order to reach this end to the extent that in 1914, the average enrollment per teacher was 81, and at least one case is on record where 250 pupils were enrolled in a singular rural school, taught by a girl eighteen years of age.⁸ It can be seen readily that under such conditions school work could not

⁵*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1901, p. 75.

⁶*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1912, p. 202.

⁷*Ibid.*, p. 203.

⁸*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 538.

be thorough and that the programme of school extension had been carried out at the expense of efficiency.

Extension since 1914. Due to the economic crisis after 1914 immediate retrenchments were necessary and many teachers of a special character were eliminated from the budget. Since that time, the department abandoned the policy of striving after numbers and placed the emphasis on thorough work and adaptation of the system to meet insular needs and solve insular educational problems.

In 1921 the educational situation was as follows: According to the census of 1920 Porto Rico has a population of 1,299,809. The number of children of legal school age is 438,747; and the number of children of compulsory school age is 209,220. The total enrollment in all schools supported by public funds, excluding duplicates, was 193,369. Of this number 119,947 were enrolled in rural schools; 62,126 in elementary graded schools; 4,364 in secondary schools; 565 in collegiate departments of the University of Porto Rico; 1,040 in the summer session of the University; 2,987 in elementary night schools; 158 in night classes for technical instruction; 2,018 in special needlework and embroidery classes; 39 in rehabilitation service, and 25 in the school for the blind. In addition to persons enrolled in publicly supported institutions, 6,818 pupils attended private schools.

The total number of different persons who attended either public or private schools at any time during the year was 200,087. The total enrollment in public schools was 43.1 per cent of the total population of school age, and 90.3 per cent of the population of compulsory school age; but of the 209,787 children of compulsory school age, only 138,983 or 66.2 per cent were enrolled.⁹

Figures Alone Are Misleading. According to these data 57 per cent of the total population of school age is not enrolled in any school whatsoever and likewise 33.8 per cent of the children of compulsory school age. It looks as if these children have no opportunity whatsoever to secure an education. This is not true and therefore this information is misleading. Officially a child is counted of school age as soon as he is five years old, and he remains in the statistics of children of school age for thirteen years. During this period the majority receive a four year rural school education or an eight year elementary school education and still remain for a number of years in the statistics as children of school age not attending any

⁹The Porto Rico School Review, September 1921, pp. 9-10.

school. Nevertheless they have completed the courses that the government is able to offer and are not by any means destitute of an opportunity to go to school. The fact remains that Porto Rico is not furnishing school facilities for 57 per cent of her school population, and that 33.8 per cent of her children between the ages of eight and fourteen years are out of school because she is not furnishing sufficient schools to provide for all her children of school age nor of compulsory school age. Ever since the establishment of the American system of schools Porto Rico has had a compulsory school law. As it stands to-day the compulsory school age is between eight and fourteen years.¹⁰

No Schools for Half the Population of School Age. There is also a child labor law, providing that no child under fourteen years of age who has not received a certificate from the department of education to the effect that he has finished the work required of the third grade of the rural or the eighth grade of the graded schools, according to whether he lives in the country or in the town, can be employed in any lucrative occupation during the hours public schools are in session. Exception is made, however, of those children who reside in a community in which there is no school within a reasonable distance wherein accommodation can be furnished, and of any orphan child or any one who for any reason depends on his or her efforts for support, as well as any child whose parents are invalids and depend exclusively on the work of the child for their maintenance. These children are required to attend a night school provided one is maintained by the department of education within one kilometer of their homes.¹¹ Moreover the school age is between five and eighteen years; that is, no child five years old or above, or eighteen years of age or below, can be denied entrance into the public schools if application is made, provided there is room for him in the school.

Such laws have not been, are not, and can not be enforced until the Island provides school facilities for at least all her children of school age. Although great progress has been made in the extension of the school system since 1898, when only 9 per cent of the school population attended school as against 43 per cent to-day; and when only 4.7 per cent of the total population was in school as against 15.6 per cent to-day; yet the extension of the public school system so as to reach the largest number possible of school children is

¹⁰*Compiled School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914, Sec. 144.

¹¹*Ibid.*, 1914, Secs. 142-153 inclusive.

still a great problem confronting the department of education. Educational progress has been made in the last two decades, but we have just begun to educate the masses of the people.

Comparison of Expenditures of 1898 with 1919. The problem of finance is one that goes hand in hand with that of extension. In order to appreciate the effort made to popularize education a comparison should be made of the funds spent in the first year of American occupation, 1899, and those spent twenty years later, 1919. In the former year the expenditures for education were \$288,098 while in 1919 they were \$2,467,703.29 or an increase of \$2,179,705.29. A study of Table I¹² will reveal the progress that has been made in financing education. The aim has been to extend the opportunities of an education to as many pupils as possible rather than increase the advantages of those already in school, but it can not be denied that the advantages of those already in school have also been increased.

With the increase in appropriation the total cost per pupil has actually decreased. While in 1899 the cost of books and supplies per pupil enrolled was \$1.71, in 1919 it was \$5.23. In 1899, the total cost per pupil was \$9.88, and in 1900 \$15.46. That figure was not exceeded until 1919 when the total cost per pupil was \$15.57. The cost per inhabitant has increased. In 1899 it was \$.302 and in 1900, \$.391. In 1919 it was \$1.94.¹³

Expenditure for Elementary Education. The most interesting fact in the educational progress for the last twenty years is the extension of elementary education. The elementary school budget for the first year of American occupation ending June 1899 was \$274,203. The budget increased steadily and twenty years after, June 1919, the budget for elementary education was \$2,077,903.19 or over 757 per cent that of 1899. The emphasis placed on elementary education is shown also when a comparison is made with the total appropriation for education. A comparison of Table II¹⁴ shows the large per cent of the whole appropriation devoted to elementary education during the past two decades. In 1919, 84.5 per cent of all funds invested in education went to the elementary schools, while 15.5 per cent only to secondary and higher education.

Sources of Finances for Education. To-day the public school system is supported primarily from direct appropriations by the insular legislature and by local taxes. As it will be seen in Table I¹⁵

¹²Appendix VII.

¹⁴Appendix VII.

¹³Table III, Appendix VII.

¹⁵Appendix VII.

by far the largest amount contributed to education comes from the insular treasury. As will also be observed in the same table the municipalities through the school board have increased their support from year to year. From time to time there have been other resources such as \$200,000 in 1901, when by act of Congress of March 24, 1900, that amount of money was transferred to Porto Rico from general allotments from revenue collected on importations from the Island, such amount to be used for the erection of school buildings.

On a later date the sum of \$137,000 was transferred from the same source and to be used for the same purpose. Other sources of revenue for educational purposes have been gifts of money or land, or buildings or equipment from philanthropic citizens. These, however, have never been very large. There is no doubt that more could be done by citizens in the way of private contributions to education. American and Porto Rican citizens are in the list of those who have shown their interest by actual contributions to education. Still the greatest hindrance to the extension of the school system is a financial one. Although the Island is contributing to-day over forty per cent of her entire revenue to education, yet school facilities are being furnished for only forty-three per cent of the children of school age. How to raise the funds to finance a system of education which will furnish not only school facilities, but the right kind of education for every child, is still a problem to be solved.

C. BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

First Funds for School Buildings. The third problem requiring immediate attention was that of equipment. At the end of the Spanish sovereignty there was not one public school building erected for the purpose. Spain herself had very few public school buildings at the time. It was not until 1906 that she began to build modern school buildings. Her colonies lacked the same things the mother country lacked. The total lack of school buildings was the most conspicuous feature of the schools of the Spanish régime which impressed Americans most unfavorably. The public school buildings and material equipment which exist to-day in Porto Rico have been provided during the past twenty years.

The first move toward providing school buildings was taken early in November 1900 when the Commissioner of Education laid before the President of the United States the immediate need of school houses in Porto Rico, and in the month of January following, the

President transmitted to the treasurer of Porto Rico the sum of \$200,000 to be used for school extension.¹⁶ This money was part of the funds collected by the Federal Government in the form of custom-house duties on products from the Island entering the United States. To this amount was subsequently added by the Governor of Porto Rico from the trust fund placed at his disposal by the President, two allotments, one of \$15,000 for general school extension and one of \$35,000 for the erection of an insular normal school.¹⁷

Recognizing the urgent need for the continuation of this work of school extension, upon the recommendation of Commissioner Lindsay, the Governor and heads of executive departments, in whose hands the trust fund allotted by the President had been placed, consented on April 30, 1902 to the use of the further sum of \$150,000 for school buildings.¹⁸

Other Provisions for School Buildings. The funds provided by the Federal Government were exhausted and other means had to be devised for providing school buildings. On March 14, 1907 the legislature passed an act providing, "That the sum of eighty thousand dollars is hereby set aside from any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated as a special trust fund to be called the 'school building fund' to be expended in accordance with the terms of this act without limitation of fiscal year for the construction of school buildings. The school building fund shall be subject to increase and replenishing by subsequent appropriations from the insular treasury, by repayments from the local boards and by the payment of interest upon advances as hereinafter provided."¹⁹

Such was the beginning of an Insular policy for the provision of school buildings. The above fund was increased by \$40,000 on March 9, 1908, and by another sum of \$40,000 on March 9, 1911.²⁰ Moreover, by act of March 10, 1908 the legislature started a "Rural School Building Fund" of \$40,000 to be expended under the direction of the Commissioner of Education as specified by the legislature.²¹ Besides these sources the legislature has provided from time to time assistance to local boards and in some instances the total amount

¹⁶*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1901, p. 50.

¹⁷*Ibid.*, 1902, p. 12.

¹⁸*Ibid.*, 1902, p. 13.

¹⁹For rules and regulations regarding the use of funds for school buildings, see *School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914, Secs. 63-64 inclusive, pp. 20-21.

²⁰*School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914, p. 20.

²¹*Ibid.*, 1914, Sec. 68, p. 21.

was furnished from the insular treasury on condition that school boards provide suitable sites.²²

Municipal Provision of School Buildings. Still the funds thus provided were not sufficient to keep up school building construction with the progress of the school system. In order to further assist the school boards in the construction of modern school buildings a law was passed February 19, 1913 authorizing them to contract indebtedness, borrow money and issue bonds on their own credit to an amount not exceeding one per centum of the aggregate tax valuation of the property of the municipality in which the school board was located for any or all of the following purposes:—"To take up or make payments on its floating indebtedness and liabilities; to refund any existing bonded indebtedness and to build school buildings or make additions or necessary repairs to its property."²³ The first school board to undertake a building programme to supply the needs of the city was that of Ponce. Two loans were contracted by the school board, one in 1913 for \$140,000 and a second one in 1914 for \$40,000.

Present Buildings. At the present time the facilities provided are not sufficient to accommodate the number of schools allotted.²⁴ The city of San Juan, although the capital city, has been very slow in providing building facilities for all the schools allotted. It was not until 1916 that the city undertook a plan to construct buildings sufficient in number to provide all the children with proper school facilities. A loan of \$300,000 was secured to begin this work, and additional loans have been secured. Beautiful, well-built and efficiently equipped buildings are being constructed in San Juan now. One of the last official acts of the Executive Council before the Jones Bill went into operation was to set aside a credit balance of \$100,000 to be used as a rural school building fund.²⁵ Thus with the co-operation of the insular and municipal governments Porto Rico has a large number of school buildings of which she can be justly proud. The photographs in Appendix VIII show the progress in school buildings better than can be expressed in words.²⁶

The buildings erected to-day show quite a contrast to those of the early years of the American occupation. The early buildings erected with the money refunded by the Federal Government,

²²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 545.

²³*School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914 Sec. 17, p. 10.

²⁴*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 545.

²⁵*Ibid.* p. 546.

²⁶Appendix VIII.

homely and deficient as they were, appeared to the people accustomed to the schools of the Spanish dominion, as palaces devoted for school purposes. It was common to hear the phrase "Un gran colegio" (a great college) in reference to the school buildings which were being erected. But the buildings of to-day excel in every respect those of the early years. They are well equipped with proper provision for sanitary toilet facilities and lighting for night classes or public meetings held in the evening. Among the best rural school buildings being erected to-day are those for the consolidated rural schools. The best of these consists of five class rooms, an office for the principal, a store room for tools, and facilities for manual training, and it has a site of three acres of level ground for carrying on work in agriculture.²⁷

The following tables will show the great advancement made in providing school buildings and facilities for the children of Porto Rico, but they will show also that this work also has just begun and that the majority of the children are still going to rented buildings.

TABLE 1. TOTAL NUMBER OF BUILDINGS.²⁸

	PUBLIC PROPERTY	RENTED	TOTAL
Used for urban schools.....	164	204	368
Used for rural schools.....	405	1130	1535
Total.....	569	1334	1903

TABLE 2. TOTAL NUMBER OF ROOMS

	PUBLIC PROPERTY	RENTED	TOTAL
In buildings used for urban schools	964	456	1420
In buildings used for rural schools.	478	1198	1676
Total.....	1442	1654	3096

TABLE 3. PUBLIC PROPERTY.²⁹

NUMBER OF BUILDINGS HAVING:	URBAN	RURAL	TOTAL
1 Room.....	26	342	368
2 Rooms.....	21	57	78
3 Rooms.....	9	2	11
4 Rooms.....	30	3	33

²⁷Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 546.

²⁸Ibid., 1920, p. 434. ²⁹Ibid., 1920, p. 434.

TABLE 3 (Continued)

NUMBER OF BUILDINGS HAVING:	URBAN	RURAL	T.T.L.
5 Rooms.....	6.....	1.....	7
6 Rooms.....	25.....	—.....	25
7 Rooms.....	3.....	—.....	3
8 Rooms.....	15.....	—.....	15
9 Rooms.....	2.....	—.....	2
10 Rooms.....	2.....	—.....	2
11 Rooms.....	2.....	—.....	2
12 Rooms.....	8.....	—.....	8
14 Rooms.....	2.....	—.....	2
15 Rooms.....	1.....	—.....	1
16 Rooms.....	6.....	—.....	6
18 Rooms.....	2.....	—.....	2
20 Rooms.....	1.....	—.....	1
21 Rooms.....	2.....	—.....	2
22 Rooms.....	1.....	—.....	1
Total.....	164	405	569

School Furniture. Practically no modern equipment existed at the time of the American occupation. To-day all publicly owned buildings and many of the rented buildings are equipped with modern furniture. The antiquated type of long benches and tables can still be found in remote rural schools of which there are about four hundred without modern equipment. The department has been trying to get rid of the old furniture and has insisted that additional schools be supplied by the school boards with modern furniture and other equipment.³⁰

School Supplies. According to law the municipalities provide desks, school furniture, bookcases, chairs and desks for teachers, clocks, proper receptacles for drinking water, supplies for janitors and all other necessary equipment for the school room, except text books and such stationery supplies as the department of education may furnish.³¹ The department should furnish school text books and supplies, not furnished by the municipalities free of charge to the pupils of the public school up to and including the eighth grade, but the Commissioner is authorized to sell text books, and pupils of continuation and high schools are required to provide their own books and supplies.³²

³⁰*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 548.*

³¹*School Laws of Porto Rico, 1914, Sec. 79, p. 23.*

³²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 434.*

The legislature has not always appropriated sufficient funds to enable the Commissioner to comply with the law. Until 1914 the appropriation for the text books and supplies, although not large, in some measure provided the needs, but since that date the prices of text books and supplies have increased and the department has not been able to buy the necessary supplies. Added to the increased cost, the increase in schools and enrollment has still made it more difficult for the department to comply with the law. Since 1917 no increase was made in the appropriation until 1921-22 when the appropriation was increased, while prices and enrollment have increased. The result is that many text books are not only in a very unhygienic condition, but actually filthy and should be burned.³³ Nevertheless when compared with Spanish times, inadequate as is the present appropriation, great progress has been made.

The following table shows the appropriations made for text-books and supplies for the last eleven years:

1910-1911.....	\$50,000
1911-1912.....	60,000
1912-1913.....	67,000
1913-1914.....	85,000
1914-1915.....	90,000
1915-1916.....	50,000
1916-1917.....	69,000
1917-1918.....	75,000
1918-1919.....	75,000
1919-1920.....	75,000
1920-1921.....	75,000
1921-1922.....	250,000 ³⁴

D. CO-EDUCATION

Still another problem which faced the American educators was the problem of co-education. The American people can not appreciate this problem as well as a Spaniard or a Latin-American. The Americans went to Porto Rico from a country where the boys and girls go to school together from the kindergarten to the university, where woman enjoys greater freedom than in any other country of the world, and where there is no appreciable difference of intellectual, social and moral standards between men and women. They went into a civilization where it was thought morally wrong for boys and girls to go to school together, where woman by tradition was destined

³³*Ibid.*, p. 434.

³⁴*Ibid.*, p. 435.

to submit herself to the will of man and where there was a very different and marked contrast between the intellectual, social and moral status of men and women.

Woman was not supposed to be as well educated as man, and therefore the government had made very little provision in the cities for her intellectual development, and none in the country districts. If she belonged to what was called the first social class, she was given an education which aimed more to furnish a certain cultural polish than a development of her mental abilities, and her moral purity was watched over that not even the interesting glances from the opposite sex might contaminate her.

If she belonged to the middle class she might attend the public schools for girls where she learned to do fancy work and sewing or study to be a teacher, and make an honest living as best she could, always being careful that her relations to the other sex were very carefully supervised. But if she belonged to what is often called the lower classes, the peasant class or the colored class, she was not supposed to have any education whatsoever.

To establish an American co-educational system of public education in such a society was to accomplish that which Spain and even all Europe had not yet accomplished; it was to step in a day over centuries of world traditions, prejudices and customs.

But the co-educational system was established, it was established for the best, and only two decades of its history has so raised the intellectual, economic, social and moral status of woman that she is becoming more and more the equal of her brother economically, while she is every bit his equal intellectually and socially and at the same time has preserved her moral superiority.

E. ADAPTATION

The greatest problem which confronted the American educators when they began to establish a system of public instruction in Porto Rico was the adaptation of a standard American common school system to a Latin American civilization, mostly of Spanish blood and traditions and whose vernacular was Spanish. This task can not be appreciated without a careful perusal of the first part of this work, where the Spanish system of public instruction is presented, and where the author has tried to emphasize the fact that there was no "system" at all to the system; that every teacher was a rule unto himself or herself and did as he or she pleased irrespective of authority;

that there was no school organization of any kind, all the schools being ungraded; and that there was no aim whatsoever in education. To establish an American system of public instruction, the American educational ladder as it is often called, a working system so co-ordinated that one step leads to all the others, and on to a definite goal, to do that among people of such a culture and psychology as the Spanish education produced, is a greater task than most people think.

But this task is made still more difficult when the attitude of the people toward manual labor, and when the language problem are taken into consideration. No one can appreciate the seriousness of these problems, and the difficulties to be encountered, as well as the person who has lived among the people and who speaks, thinks and feels in both languages. The new generation of Porto Rico, educated in the present public schools and a bilingual people, will be able to appreciate these problems and look with admiration at the efforts put forth to introduce into the curriculum subjects requiring manual activity and to establish a bilingual system of education and with sympathy for the many mistakes and failures made.

Traditional Professions of Porto Rico. The traditional professions of Porto Rico, as well as of any other Spanish country, were law and medicine, with perhaps the priesthood, pharmacy and teaching as close seconds. These were pursued generally by young men belonging to the first social class and of some economic means. But other people were not barred from the professions and the highest aim of many poor boys of good families was to study one of the traditional professions.

Such being the case, manual labor in the trades was left to the artisan class, either boys from good families whose parents could not afford to give them the advantages of a profession, or colored boys who aimed to rise higher than the average member of their class. The lowest kind of manual labor, that is, the digging of the ditches and the tilling of the soil, was left to the peon class, made up of the poor white peasant or the colored man brought up accustomed to such work as a slave.

Importance of Studies Requiring Manual Activity. While sewing and embroidery as occupations for women were more or less respectable due to the fact that they constituted required studies during the Spanish régime, cooking and laundering was left to the very poor or low socially, and to be called a "cocinera" or "lavandera"

was the greatest insult that could be offered to a woman or a young girl. With such occupational distinctions, any work requiring manual activity was barred from first-class society of means, as a general rule, and it was considered degrading for the sons or daughters of the rich even to get their hands dirty in the performance of a manual task. Of course there were exceptions, but such was the general rule.

Hence the importance of the studies of manual training, home economics and agriculture, not only as a means to bring about better home conditions, but also to transform the viewpoint of the people on manual labor, to exalt the dignity of labor and to show that in these "humble" occupations are hidden possibilities of professions as honorable as any of the traditional ones and in most cases more remunerative. The introduction of such subjects in the school curriculum was not going to be a very easy task, nor was it going to be accomplished in a day. Fifteen years of American occupation went by, before they could be made an integral part of the school curriculum to be required of all pupils. And this is still more surprising when one thinks of the fact that just such studies have been and are one of the greatest needs of the Island, for the one serious problem of Porto Rico is to prepare the people to be self-supporting, and by self-supporting is not meant the ability to eke out a mere existence, but to enable the people to provide for themselves sufficient food, clothing and shelter for the enjoyment of a normal life.

The Language Question. The problem of adaptation found its greatest difficulties in relation to the language question. Since there seems to be a misunderstanding as to what is the vernacular of the people of Porto Rico, since the status of Spanish has been the center of much passionate discussion and since on this question of the two languages hinges to a great extent the future usefulness of the Island of Porto Rico as an American possession, it seems advisable to state the problem as fully and clearly as possible.

The Language of Porto Rico. Dr. Victor S. Clark, President of the Insular Board of Education in 1899, in his report on education in Porto Rico, under the heading of "Remarks and Recommendations," reported as follows: "In conclusion we would say that careful study of the history of the public schools of Porto Rico, as outlined in the secretary's report, will help one much in appreciating the character of the problem here. There does not seem to be among the masses the same devotion to their native tongue or to any national ideal

that animates the Frenchman, for instance, in Canada or the Rhine provinces. Another important fact that must not be overlooked is that a majority of the people of this island do not speak pure Spanish. Their language is a patois almost unintelligible to the natives of Barcelona and Madrid. It possesses no literature and little value as an intellectual medium. There is a bare possibility that it will be nearly as easy to educate these people out of their patois into English as it will be to educate them into the elegant tongue of Castile. Only from the very small intellectual minority in Porto Rico, trained in Europe and imbued with European ideals of education and government, have we to anticipate any active resistance to the introduction of the American school system and the English language."³⁵ And Dr. Brumbaugh, reporting on the language question in 1901, wrote as follows: "The people speak a very imperfect Spanish. The rural teachers and many of the graded have the same patois."³⁶

Both of these gentlemen were very much mistaken or misinformed, but especially Dr. Clark, for any one would agree with Dr. Brumbaugh that the Spanish spoken in Porto Rico is not by any means perfect. They would challenge him on the "patois" question as applied to Porto Rico and not to any nation, as a very small percentage of the population of any nation speaks the national language perfectly. Dr. Clark is mistaken, to say the least, when he says that there does not seem to be among the masses devotion to their native tongue, while Dr. Brumbaugh is very much to the point when he says "The Spanish language is precious to these people. All their history and their traditions and their civilization are bound up with it."³⁷

Moreover, Dr. Clark was ignorant of the facts when he said that the language of the Porto Ricans was a patois almost unintelligible to the natives of Barcelona and Madrid; that it possessed no literature, and little value as an intellectual medium; and that there was a bare possibility to educate the people out of their patois into English as it would be to educate them into the elegant tongue of Castile.

Any one having a fair knowledge of the "elegant tongue of Castile" would not make statements as the above. Were a Porto Rican to speak his native language in Barcelona, or any place in Cataluña and Valencia and not be understood, it would not be the fault of the language of the Porto Rican, but it would be due to the fact that the

³⁵56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 60.

³⁶*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1901, p. 65.

³⁷*Ibid.*

common language of these two provinces is not Spanish and much less pure Castilian. The Barcelonan would not understand the Porto Rican, not because the latter could not speak Spanish but because the native tongue of Cataluña is Catalán, and the majority of the people speak their language in preference to Spanish. The same could be said of Valencia and other provinces of Spain, where a large part of the country population do not speak Spanish at all.

The average Porto Rican speaks Spanish more correctly and pronounces it more nearly like the Castilian pronunciation than the average inhabitant of eastern Spain. Spanish is more the language of Porto Rico than of Spain herself for every inhabitant of Porto Rico speaks it, while every inhabitant of Spain does not. Dr. Clark was also in error when he said that the language of Porto Rico possessed no literature. Not only is the whole field of Spanish literature open to the Porto Rican, but he has a native insular literature of which he is justly proud, and this is written with the orthography of "the elegant tongue of Castile."

The falsity of the statement that the language of the Porto Rican possesses little value as an intellectual medium is so evident that it needs no refutation. But Dr. Clark failed absolutely to understand the psychology of the people when he stated that there was a bare possibility of educating the Porto Rican out of his "patois" into the English language. There is as much possibility of educating the Porto Rican out of his "patois" into the English language as there is of educating the Frenchman out of his French into German, and vice versa; or the American out of his English into the Spanish of Mexico or vice versa.

Spanish is the Vernacular. At the time of the American occupation, the Porto Rican problem was compared too often with the Philippine problem, when they had very little in common. Porto Rico with a homogeneous population, mostly of European descent and a common language presented a very different problem from the Philippine Islands, with its population mostly of oriental descent and its many dialects.

"Before Jamestown or Plymouth Rock, Porto Rico was a well-developed and socially organized community, speaking the Spanish language." It is true that in 1898 a large majority of the population was illiterate and naturally did not speak literary Castilian, but these uneducated people did not speak a patois any more than the uneducated classes of the United States and England speak an

English patois. Their Spanish did not conform with the standards of the "Real Academia" any more than the language of any uneducated people conforms to the literary standards of their national languages. Spanish is the insular language, the vernacular of the people and worth conserving.

Eagerness to Learn English. On the other hand as soon as the Island became a possession of the United States and English the official language, the people saw immediately the need of learning English. Any one who could speak a little of the language became a professor and gave lessons to the many men and women who desired to study. Many American soldiers became instructors when not on duty and would spend much of their time in private homes giving lessons. When English was introduced into the public schools it was welcomed by the population as a whole and parents took pride in relating how their boys and girls could speak with the Americans and act as interpreters. The public school teachers took up English and made marvelous progress in the first five years. Bright and ambitious boys and girls were given an opportunity to go to the States to school provided they knew enough English.

Regarding the efforts of individual pupils to qualify for this opportunity, Commissioner Lindsay said:

Some of the efforts of individual pupils are almost pathetic. One boy who is studying with the hope that he might be sent to school in the States has to earn his living during the day and has only his nights, without the aid of a teacher in which to study and acquire a knowledge of English. In writing to the Department for advice he wrote in English as follows: 'It is true, I am in a position with the San Juan Light and Transit Company, but I can too little that scarcely it is not sufficient for me to address myself. I have prepared myself to can be a teacher the next time for being not able to pay one who could give lessons to me. This letter will not be correct but it is a sign of my progress in the English language. I wait for a satisfactory answer, for I go every time forward and forward. I spend some hours at night in studying alone, by that reason all that I study I try to understand it well for I have no other man who can explain me that I study at night. That is the poor life. At the end of September I will be 16 years old.'³⁸

Attitude in the Island on the Language Question. With the exception of a few politicians who have availed themselves of the language question to further their personal, selfish, political ends and ambitions, for the last twenty years, no one has failed to see the advantage nor questioned the wisdom of learning English, and more so since the citizens of Porto Rico were made citizens of the United

³⁸Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1902, p. 33.

States. The present attitude of the Island on the language question can not be better presented than has been expressed by Mr. José Padín, for some time Assistant Commissioner of Education.

He says: "Although this language question has been discussed with considerable animosity, the wisdom of teaching English in the public schools has never been seriously challenged by the people of Porto Rico. They are as keenly alive to their linguistic opportunity as the school authorities have ever been. A great many people question the advisability of teaching subjects other than the English language in English and argue that this tends to retard the progress of the pupils and to destroy the purity of the Spanish language—the thin, entering wedge which must, eventually, destroy the mother-tongue of the people of Porto Rico and, with it, their individuality. Personally the author believes that no matter what the ultimate status of Porto Rico may be (and he grants that the ultimate status of Porto Rico and its language question are intimately related), this island will remain an intellectual and spiritual as well as an economic dependency of the United States. Our youth will continue to go north for advanced academic and technical training. Our merchants and professional men will keep in close touch with the North American development of business and science. The steamers that will continue to ply between our ports and the northern coasts will feed the current which has had already a tremendous influence on our life. There is not any escape from this transforming influence. Our insular life is not self-sufficient. The stimulus and inspiration for continuous growth must come from without. They will come from the United States. And because North American ideals are destined to exercise such a powerful influence on our life, it is desirable that we make the closest acquaintance with those ideals.

"The majority of the people of Porto Rico cannot familiarize themselves with North American ideals at first hand, that is, by actually living in the United States; consequently they must do so through the next best means: through the English language. A superficial knowledge of the English language is not enough. For cultural purposes in the ordinary sense, a reading knowledge of a language may be sufficient. To catch the spirit that animates the life of a people, to know and absorb their ideals, it is indispensable to master their language, to possess it wholly. Therefore in attempting to give the children of Porto Rico as complete a mastery of the English language as it is feasible to give through the medium of a school

education, the department has acted with the fullest realization of the educational interest of the people."³⁹

The Language Policy of the Department. From the beginning of civil government, the department of education saw what an asset the knowledge of Spanish was, and at the same time the necessity, opportunity and privilege of learning English. Thus in 1901, Dr. Brumbaugh reported to the Governor of Porto Rico as follows: "The people are anxious to have their children acquire the language of the United States. They also love their native tongue. . . Teachers from the United States must teach these children the language of the United States. They must also teach the native teachers how to acquire and impart the English language. The native teachers can teach the Spanish language and need only for this work, the example and direction of trained professional teachers. . . The normal school and other agencies must speedily give the teachers of these schools a knowledge of the English language, that all the children in the schools may have instruction in both languages. . . The Spanish language will not and should not disappear from these schools. It will be a hindrance, not a help to deprive these people of an opportunity to acquire both languages."⁴⁰

Thus from the beginning the aim of the department has been to establish and to develop a bilingual system of education which would insure the conservation of Spanish and the acquisition of English, both to be mastered sufficiently for practical use. This aim has been adhered to ever since. In order to carry out this policy, different plans have been tried and changed as experience has dictated.

Text Books. The problem of adaptation gave rise to another problem very closely related to the language question. This was the problem of text books in the English language and adapted to insular conditions. On the arrival of the American school authorities, they found such text books as *Epitome of Spanish Grammar*; *Grammar of the Spanish Royal Academy*; pamphlets on the rules of syntax and orthography, several catechisms of the church; several books on Bible history, mostly in catechism form; a small geography of Porto Rico and a general geography of Palucia; a short history of Spain in catechism form and several readers such as *Juanito* and *Carreño*. Such books could not be used with the establishment of the new

³⁹Padin, José: *The Problem of Teaching English to the People of Porto Rico*, Gov't of Porto Rico, Dept. of Education Bulletin, 1916, No. 1, pp. 12-14.

⁴⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, p. 14.

public school system. But there were no others in Spanish, and American text books besides being in English were not adapted to conditions and school problems of Porto Rico. Thus one of the primary difficulties in the conduct of the schools was the absence of suitable Spanish text books.

First Text Books. With the acquisition of the Spanish colonies by the United States, one of the first things American publishers did was to have standard American text books hastily translated into Spanish. For lack of something better many of these were adopted, but none of them had been prepared with special view of the needs of the Island. Reading, writing, arithmetic and other subjects do not vary with degrees of longitude and latitude or variations in temperature, but books prepared on such subjects can present an environment entirely foreign to the child.

Such was the case not only in Porto Rico, but in all the Spanish possessions transferred to the United States as a result of the war with Spain. Readers with stories on sleighing and skating parties could not be appreciated by the children as well as if they had treated of swimming parties or even picnics where the traditional roasted pig was the center of attention; and problems of arithmetic on apples, peaches, pears, bushels and what not, could not be appreciated by the children as if they had been on bananas, nísperos, aguacates, oranges, and fanegas or quintales. In writing it was a very common thing to see a child with a copy book copying down English words and phrases the meaning of which he did not know from Greek. Even these poor supplies were not always available because publishers were slow in filling orders.⁴¹

Steps to Provide Text Books. For a considerable time translations and such Spanish books as could be secured were used in the schools. As the teachers progressed in the use of English, text books in that language were introduced, but no books adapted to Porto Rico were produced very soon. The first Porto Rican books were the readers prepared by Mr. Manuel Fernandez Juncos, and a History of Porto Rico, by Mr. Salvador Brau, published in 1904. "Moral Social" by Eugenio Maria de Hostos was adopted.⁴² In 1905, a committee was appointed to select books most adaptable to local conditions and so it happened that as books became dilapidated they were replaced by the texts recommended by this committee. Special

⁴¹*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1900, p. 21.*

⁴²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 556.*

copy books were prepared about this time, which in the first four grades had an equal division of Spanish and English sentences in the exercises to be written by the children.⁴³

The first attempt to produce English readers adapted to the insular environment was in 1906 when Miss Grace Mowry, critic teacher in the practice school connected with the Insular Normal School, prepared the Spanish-American primer, which was followed by the Spanish-American First and Second Readers, prepared by Mr. Paul G. Miller, then principal of the Normal School. Another English text published just before these readers was "Facts of Porto Rican History for Grammar School Pupils," 1905, being a condensed text on Porto Rican history by Mr. E. N. Clopper, then principal of the Central High School of San Juan.⁴⁴

In the meantime, most of the textbooks used were those recommended by the committee already mentioned and still most of them American texts. In 1907, there was introduced for use in the lower grades and in the rural schools an arithmetic in the Spanish language, but this was also a translation under the supervision of the Department of Education.⁴⁵ The same year, Superintendents Warshaw and Conant prepared a manuscript of a geography of Porto Rico which was published as a special chapter of Cornman and Gersons Geography Primer.⁴⁶ An act of March 9, 1905 was passed by the legislature providing that, "The department shall procure for the use of the public schools in Porto Rico, a reading book which shall contain the best passages of local literature in prose or verse, by leading Porto Rican writers, with brief biographical notes of each author."⁴⁷

In accordance with this provision the department made a contract with Mr. Manuel Fernandez Juncos for the preparation of a work of this nature, and the volume edited by him, "Antología Puertorriqueña", was adopted for regular use as a reader in the higher grades.⁴⁸

Not very much was done in the production of textbooks until 1915, when a new impetus was given to the preparation of books especially adapted to the needs, interests, and environment of the Porto Rican children as well as to the bilingual system of instruction followed in the schools. However, in the meantime, supervisors and teachers

⁴³*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1905, p. 18.

⁴⁴*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 556.

⁴⁵*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1906, p. 47.

⁴⁶*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1907, p. 418.

⁴⁷*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1907, Sec. 107, p. 41.

⁴⁸*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1907, p. 418.

were busy in the class rooms experimenting in their daily work with an end in view of improving instruction, devising methods and collecting material specially adapted to the local needs and environment. As the important problem was the language question, the teaching of Spanish and English received special attention. Several people published the results of their class-room work. These were discussed in teachers' meetings and in conferences.

As a result Mr. José Gonzalez Ginorio prepared and published his series of books on the teaching of Spanish, which have been adopted by the department of education and are to-day the standard Spanish readers in the lower grades. Other works on the teaching of Spanish which have received the attention of the department: "El Buen Castellano" by Mr. Manuel G. Nin has been tested in some of the grades. Also "Gramatica Castellana" by Mr. Felipe Janer has been adopted for work in the eighth and ninth grades.⁴⁹ For the teaching of English Mr. Joseph Morin developed his method and has published a series of readers adapted to local conditions, which have also been adopted by the department of education.

Among other text books prepared specially for Porto Rico and dealing with insular subject matter primarily is *Hygiene Práctica*, by Dr. Bailey K. Ashford, one of the foremost authorities to-day on tropical diseases and hygiene. This has been a valuable contribution and it is used as a text book in the intermediate grades. Miss Grace J. Ferguson has prepared a book on *Home Making and Home Keeping*, which is perhaps the only home economics textbook in English dealing with tropical conditions. Miss Laura M. Seale, instructor of mathematics in the University of Porto Rico, has rendered valuable service in the preparation of a series of texts on arithmetic consisting of a *Manual of Arithmetic* for teachers, to be used in the teaching of arithmetic in the first and second grades, a *Primary Arithmetic* for third and fourth grades, and an *Intermediate Arithmetic* for the fifth and sixth grades. The subject matter is such as is familiar to the children. The system of weights and measures legally adopted in the Island is introduced in the exercises. The problems are taken from practical life situations and deal with the insular industries and commerce.⁵⁰

Ever since the American occupation many teachers and other citizens have criticized the public school system, on the ground that no religious or moral training was given therein. Reference has been

⁴⁹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, p. 556.

⁵⁰*Ibid.*

made from time to time to the Spanish days when religious instruction was given in the schools. To fill this vacancy in the public schools, to satisfy the demands of many people and at the same time to avoid sectarian religious teaching, Miss Susan D. Huntington, for many years professor at the University of Porto Rico, who, because of her contact with hundreds of young teachers who have gone out of the Normal School and her long residence in the Island, is well qualified to know the heart of the people, has prepared two bulletins on "Moral and Civic Training." The first is in Spanish and intended for grades first to fourth inclusive and the second is in English and intended for grades fifth to eighth inclusive.

Other text books are in the process of preparation, among them a History of the Island adapted to the fourth and fifth grades and another on Nature Study of the Island. Such has been the progress made in providing suitable text books for the elementary schools. The production of text books is a matter of experience and experiment and twenty years is comparatively a short time to do very much in this field, specially in a country with the educational problems of Porto Rico.

SUMMARY

These outstanding problems have received the attention of the Department of Education but they are far from being solved. The extension of the school system and the adequate provision of buildings and equipment are primarily financial problems and can not be solved until some way is found to increase the appropriations for education. Co-education has been established and the experience thus far has not supported the contentions of its enemies during the Spanish régime. On the contrary co-education has had a beneficial influence on the education of both boys and girls. The American system has been established and extended, and the experience of the last two decades has shown that the eight year elementary school is not adapted to the needs of Porto Rico; nevertheless such organization is still in force.

The problem of adaptation is going on very slowly and it must be admitted that no intelligent adaptation worth mentioning has as yet been accomplished. Whatever adaptation has been accomplished has been the result either of common sense on the part of skillful teachers, or of accident, but not the result of scientific investigation. The tendency has been to copy and imitate the Ameri-

can system rather than to create. However, recently this problem has been receiving much attention and the results are already noticeable. In spite of the lack of a scientific approach there was so much to be done at the time of the American occupation that good results had to come from any sort of system, and the great educational progress since 1898 must be recognized. But there is no doubt that more could have been accomplished had there been an intelligent adaptation.

To appreciate how these problems have been approached and are being solved, a study of the work of the elementary schools is necessary.

CHAPTER XI

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION: II. THE SCHOOLS

The rural and graded schools, often called the common schools make up in the most part the public school system of Porto Rico. They are designed for purposes of general education, their object being to spread education broadcast so as to reduce the amount of illiteracy and give every possible encouragement to the development of the intellectual powers of the children of all grades of attainment, as they are brought together in rural schools, where a single teacher teaches all the subjects of the curriculum varying greatly according to the age and attainment of the pupils; and as they are brought together under more favorable conditions in the urban districts where the number of pupils permits of a more exact grading and of the assignment of different grades to special teachers. The night schools soon developed as an adjunct of the common schools, because many children could not attend the day schools.

A. RURAL SCHOOLS

Rural schools are those outside of the seventy-six urban districts of the Island. For some time some rural schools were conducted near the urban districts, but now these have been removed to the country where they belong. The rural schools form the great majority of the elementary schools.

Rural Population. According to the 1899 census, Porto Rico had a total population of 953,243 inhabitants of which 78.6 per cent was rural, that is, living in the country or in villages under 1,000 inhabitants.¹ The census of 1910 as well as that of 1920 defined urban population as "that residing in cities, towns and villages having 2,500 inhabitants or more, the remainder being classified as rural."² According to this definition 80 per cent of the total population in 1910 was rural,³ and 78.2 per cent in 1920.⁴ It must be

¹*Census of Porto Rico, 1899*, p. 44.

²*14th Census of U. S., 1920 Bulletin, Population of Porto Rico*, p. 1.

³*Ibid.*, p. 2. ⁴*Ibid.*

kept in mind, however, that this definition of rural population and this census computation is not entirely satisfactory for school purposes.

The Federal census credits Porto Rico with only two cities and thirty towns of over 2,500 inhabitants, whereas the Island has seventy-six distinct municipalities each one of which has an urban center and at least an urban graded school. Rural enrollment according to the department of education includes the population attending rural schools outside of the seventy-six municipalities, while urban enrollment includes all those attending schools in the urban districts. Therefore there are thousands of children in the territory classed as rural by the census who attend urban schools. There are also many children who live in the country but who attend the graded schools in the towns; these are generally the children of families of means who desire their children to continue in schools after they have finished the rural school course. There are also many children who live in semi-urban districts who attend urban schools.

Rural School Census, 1920. There is no legal provision in Porto Rico for the enumeration of the children of school age and those of compulsory school age. The present compulsory school law cannot be enforced as there are not as yet school facilities for all the children of compulsory age. In order to find out the rural population of school age in those barrios where there are schools established, and in order to know more correctly the rural school population, that is those children that go to rural schools outside of the villages, the department of education undertook to make a rural school census. This census includes only the population in rural barrios or wards, where schools are established, no enumeration being made of a few barrios where there are not as yet any schools, nor was any effort made to reach the children living at unreasonable distances from any school.

Imperfect as this census is, it showed, however, that in these barrios where schools are established, most of the children are being reached by the school; that the rural school population is not nearly as large as the Federal census would indicate; that many children from the country are attending urban schools; that the course of study is limited to the first four grades as a rule; and that school facilities are lacking for many thousands of children, especially considering that over 90 per cent of the rural schools are on double

enrollment, that is, forty children attending from nine to twelve o'clock in the forenoon and another group of forty from one to four o'clock in the afternoon. The census further shows that on the territory it covered, there were 204,017 children of school age, 116,783 children of compulsory school age, and that there was a total enrollment in the rural schools of 115,077 pupils.⁵

Extension of Rural Education. Notwithstanding this decrease in the rural school population as presented in the Federal census, the fact remains just the same that the problem of elementary education in Porto Rico is a problem of rural education, the rural population being much larger than the urban. It remains now to show what has been done in the past two decades to provide school facilities for this mass of rural school children. The extension of education in the rural districts follows the same general outline of the extension of education since the United States took possession of the Island: first the period to 1907, the period of establishment; second to 1914, the period of extension; and third, since 1914, a period of readjustment and adaptation of the rural schools to local needs.

During the scholastic year ending June 1899, there were reported 313 rural schools, 426 barrios without any school facilities and 267,630 children most of them from the country out of school.⁶ Rural schools were established so that by 1903 there were 580 rural schools.⁷ In subsequent years there was a decrease in the number of schools maintained until 1907 when 614 schools were established.⁸ Rural school extension progressed steadily during the period of extension until 1914 when there were 2,390 rural schools, an increase of over 389 per cent. These schools were taught by 1,235 teachers, 94 per cent of whom had double enrollment.⁹

New Aim in Rural Education. So far the emphasis had been placed on extension of school facilities for the largest number possible, adding one more grade here and there whenever pupils desired to continue in school beyond the grade the school reached. Most of the work was done in Spanish with a few exceptions of schools which conducted their work in English as a medium of instruction. Since 1915 under Commissioner Paul G. Miller, rural education took another course. This last period has had two aims, first to use the rural school as a community center to awaken public interest and extend

⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, pp. 418-19.*

⁶56th Congress, S. D. 363, pp. 151-152.

⁷*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1906, p. 67.*

⁸*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1907, p. 392.* ⁹*Ibid., 1914, p. 358.*

the usefulness of the rural school, and second, to consolidate rural schools wherever possible. During this period the number of rural schools have decreased but the number of teachers and enrollment have increased. Most of the teachers have had double enrollment. In 1918, 87 per cent of the rural schools were on double enrollment; in 1919, 90 per cent and in 1920, 90 per cent.¹⁰ In spite of the double enrollment, during the academic year 1919-1920 thousands of pupils of school age were turned away, and still there is an average of 67 pupils to each teacher and a total enrollment of 115,077 pupils.¹¹

The Course of Study. There has never been much difference between the content of the course of study offered in the rural schools from that offered in the urban schools, as the first three grades of every school, whether urban or rural, must aim more or less for the same thing.

Until 1908, the curriculum of most of the rural schools was limited to the first three grades of the elementary school course of study and in many of them only work in the first grade or in the first two grades was offered. In the scholastic year 1908-1909 the fourth grade was added in a considerable number of schools and in the following year instruction in the fifth grade was offered where there were enough advanced pupils to form a class.¹² So far the medium of instruction in the class room had been Spanish, but now some teachers at their own request were allowed to conduct all of the classes in English.¹³ The following year the sixth grade was added to the rural school curriculum, but there were no pupils enrolled in that grade, and moreover, in all the rural schools of the Island, at that time 1912, only 31 offered work in the fourth grade and three in the fifth grade,¹⁴ so practically the course of study was thus far confined to the first three grades.

By 1914 the academic content remained the same but considerable more emphasis was being placed on the teaching of agriculture and music. The rural school was being used more as a center for general agricultural instruction and propaganda. Regarding the work of the year the Commissioner reports as follows, speaking of the work in agriculture: "In the rural schools an average of 44,392 boys took advantage of the instruction offered and in many cases the girls

¹⁰Taken from the Governor's reports for the respective years.

¹¹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 417.*

¹²*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1911, p. 6.*

¹³*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1911, p. 209.*

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. 181.

aided in the work, although it was not compulsory for them. The work was conducted under the direction of the regular teachers, the special teacher of agriculture visiting as many rural schools as possible each month. During the year 1,135 vegetable gardens, occupying an area of approximately 225 acres, were in operation in the rural communities. . . A total of 7,866 home vegetable gardens were cultivated by the pupils in the rural districts.¹⁵

Rural Uplift Campaign. In recent years the course of study has been limited generally, except in the consolidated rural schools, to the first four grades of the elementary school course, following more or less the same methods as in the urban schools. As already stated the aim during this latter period has been placed on the use of the rural school as a community center and in the extension of the usefulness of the school. In order to accomplish this end a rural uplift campaign was ushered in, in 1916. Its purpose was: To reduce illiteracy; to arouse the interest of the rural population in rural education; to help the peasantry to improve living conditions; to put these people in touch with the world beyond their huts, giving them a taste of the things that make life more pleasant; to make the rural school the social center of the barrios and to improve rural home and community sanitation. From this campaign there developed various activities as evening classes for adults; parent organizations and meetings; rural conferences; reading and library facilities; instruction in gardening and rural industries and visits to homes of parents. The most salient feature of the rural campaign was the gathering of parents for the purpose of hearing simple addresses and lectures relating to the rural school and to community life.

As a result the peasant has come to realize that the public school belongs to him as much as it does to the planter or the merchant. The rural teacher has become a teacher of the community. The visits to homes of the illiterate peasantry has done much to stimulate the interest of parents in schools, and the result is better attendance and greater co-operation with the teachers. The rural school is reaching out to the home and assuming a leadership in local affairs. It is improving home and communal living conditions without trespassing into the field of politics.¹⁶

In 1917 the legislature appropriated salaries for 275 additional rural teachers, the parent associations increased to 494 and they held 150 meetings during the year. Through the efforts and co-

¹⁵*Ibid.*, 1914, p. 362.

¹⁶*Ibid.*, 1916, p. 354.

operation of these associations the following improvements were made: Higher enrollment, greater regularity and punctuality in attendance, many roads have been repaired and a number of bridges were built, a more adequate number of latrines were built and higher enthusiasm and keen interest was aroused in the work of the schools, rural conferences were held, rural libraries were established, and books were bought by parents associations and school boards; 120 rural schools were operated independently of the department where night sessions were maintained to teach reading, writing and elements of arithmetic to illiterates. They were taught by the local school teachers who did not receive any additional remuneration for their extra service. One supervisor edited a rural school paper for free distribution which the children read to their unlettered parents.¹⁷

The work was continued in subsequent years and in 1920 the report of the Commissioner reveals that the parents associations have co-operated with the schools. Rural conferences have resulted in better attendance and in drawing the interest of parents in the school. Hygienic conditions have been improved. The "Botiquin Escolar" or school medicine chest has become an institution in many schools. Any one who knows the Porto Rican peasants and the money they waste in all sort of medicines and vaselines knows the value of the medicine chest and the guidance on the part of the teacher in the use of medicines. Improvements of roads and bridges have been continued. Libraries and reading centers have prospered. The special teachers of agriculture have carried the message of modern agriculture to many small farmers. The following facts for the academic year, 1919-1920, will show more concretely the activities of the rural school:—

Parents associations	1317
Number of meetings	3765
Total number of rural conferences	2433
Total number of visits to parents homes	142030
Total number of rural libraries	161
Total number of reading centers	166
Total number of rural schools where night sessions were maintained by rural teachers without remuneration	140 ¹⁸

Consolidated Rural Schools. Before 1915, in rural communities where there were many children requiring the services of two teachers a two-room school house was built, and the two teachers would divide

¹⁷*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 463.

¹⁸*Ibid.*, 1920, p. 419.

the work between them, one teaching the lower and the other the upper grade. Together with the campaign for improvement of rural education, the consolidation of rural schools was begun. Due to the topography of the land, the many streams and rivers which swell into raging torrents during the rainy season, and the lack of more rural roads, the consolidation of rural schools has been limited thus far to the coast districts where better means of communication are available.

Up to 1920, 96 consolidated rural schools had been established with from two to four rooms. In these schools the organization is carried through the sixth grade and in two of them the full eight-grade elementary course of study is maintained.¹⁹ These schools bring together two, three, four or more schools and their teachers within one building or common center, in contrast with the average rural school where often an inexperienced and immature teacher struggled alone with two, three and four grades with a large enrollment and on a double enrollment plan. They also constitute the community center of their respective barrios, wherein are to be found rural libraries, means for entertaining and social functions, and where noon-day lunches are distributed free to underfed pupils. The establishment of such schools, which aside from their social value improve the means and methods for academic instruction, is changing slowly the rural communities of Porto Rico.

The leisure time of the Porto Rican peasant hangs heavily on his hands. He is generally a gambler and would not object to live by chance if enough good chances would come his way, and so spends his leisure hours shooting dice, playing cards or fighting game-cocks. The consolidated rural school can fulfill a great service providing wholesome activities for this class of people, who make up the majority of the population of the Island.

Enrollment, Attendance and Promotions. The enrollment of the rural schools is large, due generally to the fact that there are not enough schools to accommodate the children, the majority of them being on double enrollment. As far as data are available, for the last ten years or so, since the department has aimed to reach as many pupils of school age as possible, the following table shows the percentage of schools with double enrollment at various times:

1910	62	per cent of the schools were on double enrollment
1913	84	" " " " " " " " "

¹⁹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 411.*

1914	94	per cent of the schools were on double enrollment
1918	87	" " " " " " " "
1919	90	" " " " " " " "
1920	90	" " " " " " " "

The only reason for such conditions is the lack of facilities to accommodate all those who go to school.²⁰

Attendance has improved in the last two years. The following table shows the percentage of average daily attendance from 1912 to 1920:

1912.....	71	per cent
1913.....	73	per cent
1914.....	75	per cent
1915.....	75.8	per cent
1916.....	77.6	per cent
1917.....	76.7	per cent
1918.....	71.5	per cent
1919.....	72	per cent
1920.....	80	per cent ²¹

Promotions. As a general rule, promotions in the rural schools have been low. In the first years of the system this was due mainly to poor attendance, to lack of adaptation of the course of study, to defective grading and many times to defective teaching. In 1906 and 1907, only 41 to 47 per cent respectively were promoted. From 1907 to 1915 a system of flexible promotion was adopted with good results but still the percentage of promotion was low. That system has been continued and in late years there have been some improvements, but still a high percentage is not promoted. During the last few years when emphasis has been placed on rural education, promotion has ranged from 60 to 72 per cent. In 1916, 60.5 per cent were promoted; in 1918, 72.6 per cent; in 1919, 65.6 and in 1921, 68.9 per cent were promoted.²²

The chief causes for the low percentage of promotion are irregular attendance, due a great deal to illness; bad roads and heavy rains; poverty and undernourishment, many pupils not being able to do good work because they are not sufficiently and properly nourished; while double enrollment, confining the child to a three-hour session a day, is another chief cause for retardation, as the pupils are not a sufficient time under instruction to cover the required work of the course of study.

²⁰Computed from Reports of the Governor for respective years.

²¹Data taken from the reports for the respective years.

²²Computed from the Reports of the Governor for the respective years.

The Rural School of To-day Leaves Much to be Desired. The pupils who attend the rural schools are the children of the peasantry, who have inherited poverty from generations and before whom there is a dark future. The great majority of the children belong to this class. They are born in mere huts, brought up often in large families, underfed, and scantily dressed. They attend the rural schools and finish the fourth grade when they are fortunate to remain the four years in school. They know some reading, writing, and arithmetic, a little geography and a little history and they are not illiterates, but they are not prepared for anything. The great majority can not go to town to school to continue their education. Mere knowledge of reading and writing does not guarantee food, clothing, shelter, and after all that is what the peasantry as well as anyone else needs.

The rural environment is anything but wholesome. There is very little opportunity for work outside of the sugar cane fields and coffee plantations, and even these industries do not furnish enough labor for the numerous peasantry, and when they do, wages are low. Literacy is not necessary to cut cane and pick coffee beans, and as a general rule the illiterate is happier in such work than the literate for the latter has learned enough to learn to be unhappy and dissatisfied with his state. The school does not prepare the child for anything, and there is no future for him but an early marriage and to settle down to bring to the world a large and unfortunate family and to continue the traditions of his forefathers. At the age of thirty or thirty-five, the peasant is an old man or an old woman and death generally comes prematurely. What a task for the rural schools; not only to give the peasant a knowledge of reading and writing, this is the least, but to prepare him or her to be a self-supporting man or woman. This task is entirely for the future as very little has thus far been done to improve the economic condition of the peasant, which is after all the basis of all his happiness.

B. GRADED SCHOOLS

Definition. The graded schools are those established in urban centers, carefully graded from the first to the eighth grade and preparing to enter the high school. All urban communities have graded schools and as a general rule each grade is taught by one teacher. For the purpose of the department of education urban population comprises the inhabitants of the seventy-six towns of the Island, hence the urban population according to the department is

larger than that according to the United States Census. According to the latter, the urban population of school age in 1899 was 68,992; in 1910, 78,128; and in 1920, 98,851, but according to the department these would be increased considerably. In view of the fact that there are no data of the urban population as defined by the department of education, this study will be based on the data furnished by the Federal Census.

Extension of Urban Education. It was some time after the American occupation before the graded schools were functioning well, so the first years were spent introducing and adopting the courses of study. By 1906-1907, the graded schools were well organized and could well compare with any other urban graded school system. The estimated school population then was 354,721²³ and on the basis of 21 per cent of urban population the children of school age in urban districts would be 73,491. The urban schools had an enrollment of 29,904 or 40.6 per cent of the urban population of school age. In 1910 the estimated school population was 390,000 and the urban school population 78,000. The enrollment in the graded schools then was 35,000 or 44.8 per cent of the urban population of school age. The enrollment increased steadily until 1914 when it reached 70,954, the highest enrollment on record. The estimated urban population of school age the next year was 88,049 of which 80.5 per cent enrolled in the graded schools.

It must be kept in mind that this was the "year of the big budget," and consequently the year of highest enrollment. After 1914 the enrollment decreased reaching the lowest point in 1918, when 50,060 children were enrolled in the urban schools, but it rose again, and in 1920 it was 59,174, or 60 per cent of the estimated urban population of school age, which was then 98,851. The enrollment for 1921 continued, the increase being 62,126, but even yet there are not school facilities for at least 36,735 children between the ages of 5 and 18. However, great progress has been made in the extension of urban education, much more so than rural. In 1912 there were only 752 urban graded schools, while in 1914 there were 1,344,²⁴ and in 1920, 1,204. Since the urban school census is larger than the figures of the Federal census would show, with this added increase, the children of school age in urban districts would increase considerably,

²³See Appendix VII, Table I.

²⁴Including 319 schools on double enrollment.

thus increasing the lack of school facilities for all the children of school age.

The Course of Study. Several courses of study have been adopted from time to time by the department of education. The first one was promulgated by General Henry in 1899, the second was prepared by Dr. Brumbaugh in 1901, the third by Commissioner Falkner in 1906, and the fourth by Commissioner Dexter in 1909, and put into operation that same year. After that the course of study has been revised from time to time accordingly as emphasis was placed on one or another subject of study. These different courses differ very little in content, for the work to be covered in the elementary school is very much the same, but they differ inasmuch as the emphasis placed on the language to be used as a medium of instruction has changed. Also, from time to time, more emphasis has been placed on the teaching of special subjects.

The courses prepared by General Henry and Dr. Brumbaugh were based largely upon experience of American schools. Local needs had not yet made themselves sufficiently felt to exercise much influence in the shaping of the course of study. As time went on these needs were better understood, the course being changed accordingly. Moreover, the first courses of study were based upon the supposition that the instruction in the schools was given in Spanish, with the teaching of English as a special study only. But the teachers made great progress in the use of the English language between 1900 and 1907. As they became more and more versed in English, they continued changing the medium of instruction, using more English and less Spanish. The work to be covered in the eight grades was the same whatever the language employed, but it had to be differently distributed accordingly as English or Spanish was the predominant medium of instruction. By 1907 English had become predominantly the language of the class room so that the course of study was changed to fit this need. The changes made then had to be adopted slowly as not all teachers could use the English language well, but the aim was centered on the use of English as the medium of instruction and all teachers had to begin a gradual adaptation to that aim. The course of study was more of a model to go by than a law to be rigorously enforced.

The changes made in 1909-1910 were also based on the language question. In almost every town, the strongest English graded teachers (Porto Ricans who excelled in the knowledge and use of

English) were assigned to the first grades, and English graded teachers almost equally proficient to the second grades. The Spanish graded teachers (those whose English was not good enough to conduct the class in that language) were as a rule assigned to the third and fourth grades where they taught Spanish and possibly one other subject. In order that the pupils of these grades might be permitted to do practically all their work in English, these Spanish graded teachers would exchange class rooms with the English graded teachers and the teachers of English (American and some Porto Ricans who knew English well) in such a way that while they were teaching Spanish in a room other than their own, the English graded teacher or the teacher of English as the case might be, would be teaching a certain subject in English in the room. The teachers of English, generally Americans, were given grades fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth.²⁵

Thus the children heard good English and received good English instruction at the beginning and at the end of their school course. Moreover as the American teachers did not know Spanish and therefore were not fitted to teach the first grades, they obtained better results with the pupils in the higher grades who were more advanced in English. Other changes made before 1915 were due to the emphasis given to the teaching of special subjects such as music, drawing, manual training, home economics and agriculture. The changes made since 1915 have been based mostly on the teaching of Spanish and English.

Enrollment, Attendance and Promotions. The following table, computed from the Governor's report for the respective years as far as the data are available, will show the improvement in enrollment, attendance and promotions since 1906 at which time school extension became a special aim of the department of education.

Year	Total Enrollment	Average Attendance	Percentage of Attendance	Per cent Promotion
1906	28,116	20,703	73.9	54
1907	29,904	20,672	74	64
1908	25,702	—	—	—
1909	32,547	—	—	—
1910	35,000	31,200	89	—
1911	46,173	38,800	79.7	68.9
1912	58,809	40,966	79.1	68.78
1913	52,594	41,351	78.7	—
1914	70,954	57,230	80.6	—

²⁵*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1910, pp. 7-8.*

Year	Total Enrollment	Average Attendance	Percentage of Attendance	Per cent Promotion
1915	65,428	52,417	80.1	77.7
1916	60,623	50,763	83.7	—
1917	53,372	43,317	81.2	76.2
1918	50,060	41,286	82.4	81.8
1919	54,422	44,879	82.4	76.7
1920	59,174	49,821	84	82.6
1921	62,126	—	—	81.7

The percentage of attendance is still low. It must be remembered that this is computed on the basis of the total enrollment and not on the basis of the average daily enrollment, in which case the percentage of attendance would be much higher. Promotions are also low, but a great improvement has been made since the academic year 1905-1906. Poverty and illness, chiefly uncinariasis, among the children is accountable for much retardation and inefficient school work. Double enrollment in some urban schools, causing groups of pupils to receive only half time instruction, is another cause for retardation and low promotion.

Graduates of the Graded Schools. Ever since the graded schools were established, they have offered an eight-year course of study as a requisite to enter the high school. They have aimed to give a general education and to spread education broadcast thus reducing illiteracy. A study of the number of eighth grade diplomas issued since 1903 will show how many pupils have completed the course of study every year.

Year	Diplomas Issued
1903	44
1904	29
1905	45
1906	212
1907	213
1908	267
1909	651
1910	707
1911	967
1912	1,325
1913	1,634
1914	2,004
1915	1,915
1916	2,028
1917	1,935
1918	2,035

1919	2,184
1920	2,496
1921	2,485 ²⁶

Although the graduates from the elementary schools have increased in late years, yet the majority of the pupils have dropped out before completing the elementary school course. Many drop out of school when they complete the eighth grade, while a few continue and take a high school course, and still a smaller number go to college and university. The eight year elementary school course has prepared those who continue in school beyond the eighth grade. It has prepared them for something. It has accomplished its purpose. Pupils leaving the school at the end of the eighth grade are not prepared for anything in particular. They have a general education and are prepared for further study, but as far as being prepared to be self-supporting they are not. Their schooling of course will be an asset in whatever trade or profession they may enter, but the school has not prepared them for a life work.

Still the largest number of children drop out of school sometime between the fourth and eighth grade. These are not illiterate. They know reading, writing, arithmetic, some geography and some history, and that is about all. This is, no doubt, a great deal, but should the school stop with that? The majority of the pupils receive such an education and no more. The school has not prepared them for anything in particular. Hence the need of a new aim and an organization to achieve that aim.

C. NIGHT SCHOOLS

The first school law of Porto Rico under the civil government approved by the legislature April 9, 1901, provided for night schools as follows:—

“The commissioner of education upon application of twenty young men unable to attend day school for justified reasons, may establish a night school in each town and may also close the same when the average attendance in any one month does not reach twelve students.”²⁷ Later the following clause was added to the above provision:—“adults may be admitted to night school when in the judgment of the local school authorities they are able to profit by the instruction offered and their presence in the said night school will

²⁶Data taken from the Reports of the Governor of Porto Rico for the respective years.

²⁷*Compiled School Laws of Porto Rico*, April 9, 1901, Sec. 26.

not operate to the exclusion of eligible young persons who desire admission."²⁸ By subsequent legislation the Commissioner of Education has been empowered to establish at his discretion a night school in each municipality and may establish more than one school in any city where in his opinion the demand for such a night school may warrant it.²⁹ As provided by law, therefore, the night schools are an adjunct part of the public school system of Porto Rico.

Although the night schools were intended for boys and girls of school age who could not attend school during the day, yet the first who petitioned for these schools were laborers and clerks, that is, adults. Reporting on the beginning of these schools, Dr. Brumbaugh says as follows:—"Last year several of these schools were opened as soon as the law became operative. Many more will be opened this year. The petitions reveal peculiar conditions, many laborers and clerks petition the department for night schools. Under the law, those above the legal school age are not entitled to receive free education at a night school yet these are the ones that petition most earnestly for such schools. Their action reveals the great desire of many citizens to acquire an education. The demand is for instruction in the English language, in the history of the United States and in arithmetic. It is a great opportunity and one that must be seized. As soon as the salary list of the day schools is determined the remainder of the budget will be used to open as many of these schools as the available finances will allow."³⁰

Some schools were opened the next year and as it was to be expected, many of the pupils were adults. Moreover about this time the cigar makers union demanded of its members the ability to read and write, hence their desire for night school instruction. Commissioner Lindsay reported an attendance of 2,767 for the year 1901-1902, with 64.7 per cent of the pupils in actual attendance, and most of these persons of adult years, occupied at hard work during the day.³¹ Due to the attendance of adults the legislature in 1903 made provision for them. The night elementary school was a new thing, and like all new things it was welcomed by the people. Nevertheless, the schools were merely on trial, their future undecided, as it depended on how the people patronized them and how the legislature would provide for their support.

²⁸*Compiled School Laws of 1903*, Sec. 61.

²⁹Act of March 9, 1905, *School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914 (155).

³⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1901, pp. 59-60.

³¹*Ibid.*, 1902, p. 26.

Extension of Night Schools. The history of the night schools follow the general outline of education in Porto Rico since 1898. Three periods are well marked, first, the period of establishment, and trial of the schools to 1907; second, the period of school extension, to 1914; and third, the period of adjustment to circumstances and insular needs. The first period is characterized by a sudden rush of adults to night schools, followed by a fall in their attendance and an increase of children of school age. While during the first two years of their existence most of the pupils were adults, by 1906 they made up only 23 per cent of the total,³² and by 1907 only 16 per cent.³³ Of the 2,846 pupils enrolled in 1906, 1,081 were between the ages of 15 to 18 years, while 1,121 were between six and fifteen years. Of the 2,646 enrollment in 1907, 429 were adults, 828 between 15 to 18 years of age, and 1,389 between 6 and 14 years.³⁴ After all the petitions and enthusiasm of the adults they left the schools which were then patronized more by children of school age between 10 and 14 years.

When Dr. Dexter became Commissioner he applied his policy of extension to the night schools. So far these schools had been confined to the urban districts, but in 1909 and 1910 quite a number were established in rural districts. Because of illiteracy the rural districts need the night schools more than the urban. As soon as night schools began to be established in the country, petitions came from young people in rural regions requesting the establishment of rural schools for an opportunity to learn to read, write and some instruction in arithmetic. By 1912 there were established altogether 139 night urban schools and 209 rural, the former with an enrollment of 8,594.³⁵ In the year 1913 there were established 150 schools within urban limits and 149 in rural districts, with enrollment of 7,430 and 5,157 respectively. Still the extension of night schools continued and by 1914 there were 565 both urban and rural.³⁶ This made it possible for many who could not attend school during the day to do so at night.

For the next academic year there was no appropriation made, but the yearly budget carried with it a provision that "as scholarships granted for the training of young men and young women from Porto Rico in the schools of the United States become vacant, no new

³²*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1906, p. 104.

³³*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1907, p. 411.

³⁴*Ibid.*, p. 412.

³⁵*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 233.

³⁶*Ibid.*, 1914, p. 361.

appointments thereto should be made, but the surplus fund resulting from such vacancies should be devoted to the maintenance of night schools."³⁷ With these funds 185 night schools were opened and maintained for eighteen weeks or 85 school days, 128 of these were maintained in urban districts and 68 in rural,³⁸ and the policy of extension came to an end with the change of Commissioner, but more so due to lack of funds.

Technical Instruction and Sewing in Night Schools. Besides the night schools conducted strictly on academic line, several supervisors recommended the establishment of instruction in sewing and manual training into the night schools.³⁹ During the school year 1912-1913, sewing was offered in one of the night schools for half an hour each night,⁴⁰ and a night trade school was established in San Juan, giving instruction in plumbing, bricklaying, carpentry, automobile mechanics, and mechanical drawing. The session lasted five months during which time 206 were enrolled but only with an average attendance of 85. However, at the expiration of the five months experimental period, the interest was such that the advisability of continuing the work without interruption was unquestioned.⁴¹ The next year twelve industrial night schools were maintained in different towns with a total enrollment of 378, the average age of the students being 24 years. The San Juan school offered the same curriculum as the year before and added sewing for the girls. The instruction in most of the other schools was confined to elementary wood working.⁴²

Later Instruction in Night Schools. The budget for the academic year did not permit the maintenance of night schools in 1915. In 1916 they were revived, confining themselves to the instruction in the regular elementary school subjects and mostly among illiterate boys and girls who desired to learn to read and write. It was not until the scholastic year 1919-1920 when technical instruction was revived and given in Boldorioty de Castro Graded and Technical School, when 244 pupils had instruction in industrial subjects.⁴³ The night schools were continued during the academic year 1920-21 with an enrollment of 2,987, with 158 enrolled for industrial, technical instruction.⁴⁴ The retrenchments taken since 1915 were

³⁷*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 328.

³⁸*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 328.

³⁹*Ibid.*, 1911, p. 193.

⁴⁰*Ibid.*, 1913, p. 333.

⁴¹*Ibid.*, 1913, p. 334.

⁴²*Ibid.*, 1914, p. 361.

⁴³*Ibid.*, 1920, p. 415.

⁴⁴*The Porto Rico School Review*, Sept. 1921, p. 10.

due mostly to lack of funds; at the same time care has been taken in avoiding numbers. Although the work has been confined mostly to the elementary school subjects, yet what has been done has been done more thoroughly and efficiently than in past years, and the schools have aimed to provide elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic for five months of the year, two hours each evening, for five evenings a week, to the many boys and some girls who do not get to school during the day, or to young men who are illiterate and desire to learn to read and write.

Private Schools. Soon after the American occupation the Protestant denominations established many mission schools in Porto Rico. It has been the policy of the Protestant churches to co-operate with the department of education, hence they have aimed to supplement the work of the department. At first these schools aimed to give the same general education as the public schools, but as the public schools extended, the mission schools have been turning their attention to industrial education, chiefly hat making, basket weaving, embroidery, and lace making. These schools follow the elementary course of study of the public schools. The Roman Catholic church has a system of parochial schools, very strong in San Juan, Mayagüez and Caguas, and there are other private schools conducted by individuals for profit as a means of livelihood.

In 1920 there were forty-six private schools with a total enrollment of 5,283 and a teaching force of 187. They offered work ranging from kindergarten to high school instruction. Twenty-one of them followed the official course of study for the common schools, as outlined by the department of education.⁴⁵ The private school as a force in education is increasing while also more advantage is being taken of the facilities offered by the public schools. At the present time there is plenty of opportunity for private schools to render a great service as long as they co-operate with the department of education and aim to educate rather than to gain recruits for a particular sectarian, denominational or political belief.

Summary. Instruction in the elementary school subjects is given in three kinds of schools, rural, graded and night schools. The rural schools are offering as a general rule instruction in the first four grades of the elementary school course, but the consolidated rural schools are offering as much as possible the graded school course. The graded schools offer an eight-year course leading to the

⁴⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 432.*

eighth-grade diploma. The night schools confine themselves mostly to instruction in the first few grades of the elementary school course given to the many boys or girls who do not get to school during the day or to illiterate young men and women who desire to learn to read and write. The rural and graded schools function ten months during the year, the night schools about five months. A reorganization of the schools adapting them more to meet the local conditions is necessary.

They should contribute more toward preparation for life in view of the great need among the poor people to fit themselves for a life work. The aim of the private schools should be to supplement as far as possible the public schools and co-operate with them in the great task of educating the masses.

CHAPTER XII

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION: III. SPECIAL SUBJECTS AND AUXILIARY EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

By special subjects is meant those studies in the curriculum, the teaching of which receives specific emphasis because of their general practical value. The most important of these are: English and Spanish, Manual Training, Home Economics, Agriculture, and Physical Education.

A. THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Since the establishment of Civil Government and the present system of public instruction, the aim of the department of education has been to develop and establish a bilingual system of education which would insure the conservation of Spanish and the acquisition of English, both to be mastered sufficiently for practical use. As Spanish was the language of the people, the immediate need was the acquisition of English. In order to carry out the policy of the department, different plans have been tried and changed as experiences have dictated.

English in the Graded Schools. The first plan tried was the teaching of English by a special teacher. The law provided that, "In every village and city maintaining a graded system of schools there shall be at least one teacher of English, and as many more as the Commissioner of Education may appoint."¹ No attempt was made to teach English in the rural schools any more than the rural teacher could do alone. The work of these special teachers of English was to give instruction in the English language to pupils and native teachers. The native teachers were placed in charge of the grades and taught all the subjects of the curriculum in Spanish, while the subject of English was taught by the American teachers who went from grade to grade teaching English three to six periods a day.²

¹*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1901, Sec. 18.

²*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1904, p. 25.

It became evident that the teaching of English as a special subject, using that language only during the English class, was not giving the pupils sufficient ear and verbal drill to master the language for practical purposes. Especially was this so, when Spanish was used the rest of the day in school, as well as on the playground, the street, and in the home. The pupils did not hear English enough to accustom themselves to think in the language, hence a new plan of instruction had to be devised. The next plan tried was to introduce English as the medium of instruction in the class room. This was tried in the schools of San Juan, Ponce and Mayagüez, during the academic year 1903-1904, and proved successful, the pupils seemingly making more progress in English.³ The Porto Rican teachers had already made progress in the use of the English language. Moreover a special course was offered for teachers desiring to qualify to teach all the subjects of the curriculum in English. Fifty-four teachers passed the examinations and qualified,⁴ and during the year 1905-1906, one hundred and sixty schools were taught wholly or partly in English as follows:

1. Schools taught wholly in English by American teachers.....	37
2. Schools taught partly in English by American teachers.....	34
3. Schools taught wholly in English by Porto Rican teachers.....	37
4. Schools taught partly in English by Porto Rican teachers.....	52 ⁵
Total.....	160

This was the beginning of the introduction of English as the medium of instruction in the class room. English was introduced more and more extensively as Porto Rican teachers were licensed as English teachers and permitted to teach all the subjects of the curriculum in that language. In the grades taught by American teachers, a teacher of Spanish would come daily to teach Spanish, during one period. The change from Spanish into English as the medium of instruction in the class room was made gradually. The following table shows the progress that was made in the use of English as the medium of instruction in the graded schools from 1905 to 1912, when the bilingual system had been fully developed:

³*Ibid.*

⁴*Ibid.*, 1905, p. 19.

⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1907, p. 382.

Graded Schools Taught	1905-1906	1906-1907	1907-1908	1908-1909	1909-1910	1910-1911	1911-1912
Wholly in English	74	202	288	442	607	659	759.
Partly in English	86	187	128	64	67	31	11.
English as a special subject or no English	340	113	147	157	4	5	1.
Total graded schools	500	502	563	663	678	695	771.0
Percentage wholly in English	15	40	51	67	90	95	98.4
Percentage partly in English	17	37	23	10	10	5	1.6 ⁶

By 1915, the approximate distribution of English, Spanish or either in the class room as media of instruction in the different grades of the graded school system was as follows:

Grade	English	Spanish	Either	Total
	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
1-2.....	37.5	28.1	34.4	100.
3.....	43.1	30.8	26.1	100.
4.....	36.95	36.95	26.1	100.
5.....	49.2	26.1	24.7	100.
6.....	53.8	18.5	27.7	100.
7.....	55.4	18.5	26.1	100.
8.....	55.4	18.5	26.1	100.
Average.....	47.34	25.35	27.31	100. ⁷

English in the Rural Schools. Rural schools conducted wholly in English were unknown before 1909. That year one hundred twenty-four teachers asked for and obtained permission from their supervisors to teach all the subjects of their schools in English. The use of English as the medium of instruction in the rural schools grew as shown in the following table:

⁶*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 248.

⁷*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1915, p. 343.

Rural Schools Taught	1908-1909	Per Cent	1909-1910	Per Cent	1910-1911	Per Cent	1911-1912	Per Cent
Wholly in English			124	15	154	16	188	17.0
Partly in English	183	20	209	22	222	23	238	22.0
English as a Special Subject	152	17	597	64	564	59	665	60.05
No English	571	63	4	1	13	2	6	.5 ⁸

By 1915 in the rural schools the work of the first grade was done exclusively in Spanish. English was taught as a special subject in grades two to four inclusive, fifteen minutes being devoted on an average to instruction in English.⁹

Such was the status of the language question after seventeen years of endeavor to adapt a system of education based on American methods. Such was the status after many experiments, much trying and much rejecting here and there. In the meantime the language question had become the subject of controversy among school people and even politicians. Many school people felt that the bilingual system as developed was not rendering satisfactory results either in Spanish or in English. Many trials and experiments were being conducted in the teaching of the two languages. Politicians availed themselves of the opportunity to attack the scheme of education in force as "an insidious attempt to eliminate Spanish, the thin, entering wedge calculated to destroy the personality of the people of Porto Rico."¹⁰ The whole controversy was centered on how much time should be devoted in the schools to each language, how far should Spanish be the medium of instruction and how far English.

First Attempt to Study the Language Question. In 1915, Dr. Paul G. Miller returned to Porto Rico as Commissioner of Education. He conducted a series of educational tests in the elementary schools to ascertain the efficiency of the school system. Mr. José Padin, then general superintendent, availed himself of this opportunity to make a study of the English of the pupils of the eighth grade who had had all their schooling under the bilingual system. The result was a bulletin published by the Department of Education entitled: "The Problem of Teaching English to the People of Porto Rico."

⁸*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 248. ⁹*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 343. ¹⁰*Ibid.*

The aim of the study as expressed by the author was:

Due to the fact that both English and Spanish are used in the elementary graded system as the medium of instruction and that the relative amount of time which should be devoted to each language is a much disputed question, it was deemed advisable to examine the papers written by the eighth-grade pupils to find out the quality of English which they have acquired after eight years of training under the teaching plan now in force and to try to discover whether the results of this teaching, as revealed in the papers, justify a readjustment of the present bilingual plan of instruction. The data contained in the papers examined are specially valuable because the students now enrolled in the eighth grade have received practically their entire school education under the bilingual plan of instruction in force. These pupils represent the finished product of the bilingual scheme of instruction. The quality of English which they can write may be taken as typical of the best that can be acquired under the plan in use.¹¹

The most common mistakes found in all the papers examined, classified under nine heads, were as follows:

1. Misuse of nouns and adjectives, such as: "We can be liberty," "a nation is progress, . . .," Also common mistakes in the use of some, any, anything, much, many, few, little, etc.

2. Irregular plurals, such as: "mens," "childrens," etc.

3. Division of words into syllables, such as: "who-le," "becau-se," "go-ods," "ma-de," etc.

4. Inflection of the adjective in number, such as: "importantes things," "others things," "goods lands," etc.

5. Comparison of adjectives, such as: "the soldiers are as better as the lawyers," "more deeper," "more larger," "as largest," etc.

6. Use of pronouns, such as "She (San Juan) can be the capital," "soldiers have his breakfast," "the newspapers can say anything he wants," "all body have a person that rules upon him," "they had to work to maintain himself," etc. A remarkable passage was the following: "I think that if your rich we should be happy because a person that have money they can do everything they wanted and because he spent all the money they have and no body can said nothing."

7. Use of the auxiliary verbal forms, "do," "does," "did," such as: "If they does not work," "does not means," "he do not put," "did not saved him," etc.

8. Use of the verb, such as: "he would spends," "to made," "we must said," "those who becomes rich lives in good conditions," "a teacher, a doctor, a lawyer and a merchant has to work," "will engaged in agriculture," "to remained," "we can saw," etc. The

¹¹Padin, José, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

errors found in the idiomatic usage of such verbs as to be, to do, to make, etc., are too numerous to mention.

9. Tense sequence, such as: "if it was not true we shall come to school," "if we don't work it can be," "if I should be rich I am always thinking in money," etc.¹²

The majority of these errors can only be appreciated by a person who knows both languages. Some of them would be impossible to an American child, but not so with a child whose vernacular is Spanish, and who hears English only in the class room and many times incorrectly.

Causes for Failure in the Teaching of English. In searching for causes that would produce such results, which were an indictment of the bilingual system in force, Mr. Padin attributes the failure to three causes: first to poor teaching; second to the fact that the method in operation was psychologically wrong, and third, he places all the responsibility on those who imposed the method and attempted to teach English to the Porto Rican child as it is taught to the American children.¹³ He summarizes his investigation thus:

Results show that, in regard to the acquisition of English, the bilingual plan breaks down in the elementary graded schools. The evidence examined shows that the probable cause of this failure lies in the misconception of the method and material best suited to teach English to non-English speaking children who are studying at the same time their mother-tongue. This conception is revealed in the attempt to teach English to the Porto Rican children as if it were their mother-tongue, without regard to the fact that they live in a non-English environment, and utilizing the advantages which accrue to the children from linguistic training in their native language. Because of this misconception, a great many things are taken for granted, others are unduly emphasized and still others, which should demand the closest attention, entirely overlooked.

To remedy this evil it is recommended that the course of study to teach English be revised along the following lines: (a) Elimination of reading as the main object and substitution therefor of a plan in which conversation and written expression receive the chief emphasis; (b) the teaching through Spanish of all rules of punctuation, capitalization and whatever is common to both languages, because Spanish is the medium which offers the least resistance to the effective mastery of these things; (c) special attention to peculiar English idioms and structure; that is, to those features which make this language difficult for Spanish speaking children.¹⁴

Present Language Policy. As the result of this study and recommendations, since 1917, Spanish has been used as the medium of instruction in the four lower grades, and English taught as a special

¹²For details of the investigation see Padin, José: *The Problem of Teaching English to the People of Porto Rico*.

¹³Padin, José, *op. cit.*, pp. 17-20.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, pp. 25-26.

subject. The transition from Spanish to English is made in the fifth and sixth grades, and in the two higher grades, English is the medium of instruction while Spanish is taught as a special subject. In the rural schools the language of instruction is Spanish, except in the consolidated rural schools having higher grades, where the plan is the same as that of urban schools.¹⁵

Instead of teaching children to read English beginning with the first grade, oral English is taught in the first and second grades and formal reading is deferred until the third grade. As far as the experiment has been tried, results seem encouraging. The shifting from conversation to reading as the medium to begin the study of English, gives the pupils an oral vocabulary before they begin formal reading, thus putting the Porto Rican child nearer to the level of the American child who hears four to five years of English before reading.¹⁶ Nevertheless the Porto Rican child still has the handicap of his Spanish environment, in addition to the fact that he is learning two languages at the same time.

The teaching of oral English with texts specially prepared for the purpose has been made possible by the work of Mr. Joseph Morin, for some time supervisor of schools and at the present time general superintendent. He has prepared two teachers' manuals for first and second grades, and a beginner's reader for the third grade. These texts are the result of years of experience and trial in the class room. They are a product of the schools and all the content deals with situations familiar to the children. Due care is given to pronunciation which is very hard for people of Spanish speech to master. This is still more difficult when one takes into account the fact that English in the lower grades is taught by Porto Rican teachers whose mother-tongue is Spanish and the majority of whom have never been outside of the Island. Other particular subjects specially hard for Porto Rican children are emphasized and plenty of drill exercises provided.

English After Twenty-four Years of American Occupation. At the end of twenty-four years of American occupation in Porto Rico, and twenty-two years since the present system of public instruction was begun, it is fair to confess that the schools have not made the progress in English that had been expected. The people of the Island are far yet from being a bilingual people. In the cities English is quite generally spoken, but the country masses do not know enough

¹⁵Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 563. ¹⁶*Ibid.*

English for any practical purpose, and they never will until the rural schools offer a course which will assure the acquisition of English. Four years in the rural school, being taught in Spanish with English as a special subject, give a mere vocabulary which the child forgets soon after he leaves school. That accounts mostly for the fact that to-day after twenty-four years of American occupation only ten per cent of the people over ten years of age can speak English.¹⁷

There is no doubt that too much reliance has been placed on the importation of culture, in adapting more than in creating, but the best culture is that which although influenced by many currents is manufactured on the native soil and by the native people. Past mistakes can not be undone, but they can serve as experience to profit by.

Emphasis on Spanish To-day. With the emphasis on the study of English the teaching of Spanish has not been neglected and since 1914 it has received a decided impetus. Since the above year, the office of General Superintendent of Spanish has been maintained in the department of education. This officer gives all of his time to the supervision and improvement of the teaching of the vernacular. The people of Porto Rico speak better Spanish to-day than during the Spanish régime and this language is being better taught to-day than at any other period in the history of the Island.

B. MANUAL TRAINING

Industrial Schools. The first type of school work requiring manual activity was attempted in San Juan in 1903, in the so-called industrial school. Subsequently other schools of the same nature were established in Ponce, Mayagüez, Arecibo and Guayama, appropriation being made by the Legislature during the five-year period from 1903 to 1907, when support was discontinued, the schools closed and their property disposed of. As much as these schools were needed, the schools were not successful owing to lack of specially trained teachers to take charge of instruction, and to lack of appreciation and understanding of industrial education on the part of the people and legislators.¹⁸

Manual Training After 1907. After the failure of the industrial schools in 1907, the Island was left entirely without provision for any

¹⁷*Fourteenth Census of the U. S., 1920. Bulletin, Population, Porto Rico, p. 13.*

¹⁸For a detailed account of these schools the reader is referred to the reports of the Commissioner of Education for the five-year period, 1903-1907, and especially the reports for the last two years named.

form of manual instruction in the public schools. With no appropriation providing specifically for such work it was impossible to accomplish much in the teaching of manual training. For a time such work as was done, goes to the credit of some teachers here and there, who having special aptitude and bent for construction work in wood, received encouragement from the department and devoted some time during school hours to the work of the manual arts. They did not stop with what is commonly called manual training, but also constructed various articles out of such native products as bamboo and various fiber products.

In addition to this semi-official work, the regular work of manual training began to gain in popularity in 1910, and during the school year, there were regular manual training shops in operation in connection with the schools of nine towns with about 500 pupils receiving instruction. In Rio Piedras the boys built a two-room house for carpenter shops and domestic science room, and made their own tables, besides other articles for the use of the school. In another town playground apparatus was built, repairs were made in school buildings and a fence constructed and put in the plaza. A further indication of the interest in this field of work was the fact that in 1911, in the summer institutes for teachers, there were forty-eight students enrolled in the manual training classes.

From these indications, showing that the sentiment was sufficiently strong to warrant more decided steps in this direction, the department of education made some provision to introduce the study of manual training in the new course of studies for the continuation schools, and a special teacher experienced in teaching this subject was assigned to each continuation school, leaving opportunity for as many boys as could be accommodated¹⁹ from the elementary schools to receive instruction. The work grew the next year and some sort of manual training was offered in sixteen school districts, 758 boys receiving the advantages of such instruction. Although the regular work of manual training was generally limited to the seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth grades, yet the lower grades did some work in manual arts such as clay modeling of fruits and dishes, and made articles of straw and fibers.²⁰

Manual Training a Subject in the Curriculum of the Graded Schools. In 1912, Mr. E. M. Bainter was appointed Commissioner of Education. He was a specialist in vocational and prevocational education

¹⁹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1911, p. 189. ²⁰*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 224.

and gave the first real impetus to manual training, home economics and agriculture as subjects in the regular curriculum, so that beginning with the autumn term in 1913, manual training was given a place in the curriculum of the urban schools, and made obligatory for all boys enrolled in grades six to ten inclusive in those towns where the number of pupils in the grades mentioned warranted the equipping of a shop and the assignment of a special teacher to handle the work. Complete equipment for the instruction in wood working was bought by the school boards of forty-nine towns, and the department appointed fifty-three teachers who had received special training in this line. Thirty-one of these were assigned to the upper grades of the elementary school and twenty-two to the continuation schools.

An average of 3,181 boys were enrolled in the manual training classes throughout the year. A general supervisor of manual training was appointed who prepared a course of study for the different grades, and in addition to the working out of the different projects stipulated, the pupils in many instances constructed furniture for the rural schools, repaired school property, and constructed manual training shops from plans prepared by the general supervisor, the school boards paying only for the material employed in the construction. Three periods of fifty minutes each week were given in the grades, and five periods of fifty minutes each per week in the continuation schools.²¹ Thus manual training was established in the curriculum and became very popular with the boys. The next year it was continued with success, 3,033 boys having had instruction, distributed as follows: High schools, 487; continuation schools, 518; eighth grade, 1,029; seventh grade, 694; and sixth grade, 305.²²

Manual Training in the Rural School Curriculum. So far manual training had been confined to urban centers, but in 1916 two consolidated rural schools offered it for the first time in the country districts.²³

During the war the instruction in manual training was badly handicapped due to the general restless condition, to many war activities which required a great deal of time, and especially due to the fact that one-half of the teaching force entered the service of the United States as either officers or soldiers. With the establishment of normal conditions, instruction in this subject has received its place again in

²¹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1914, p. 363.

²²*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 332.

²³*Ibid.*, 1916, p. 357.

the curriculum as a study firmly established, and it is being extended in the elementary school as means and circumstances allow.

Prevocational Education for Boys. After the failure of the industrial schools, outside of the special subjects in the curriculum no prevocational preparation of any kind was given until recent years. From the manual training classes many boys have gone into carpentry, so that their school training was in some measure prevocational, but that had not been the general aim of the instruction in manual training. Thus far, there is only one public school in Porto Rico, the aim of which is "to give boys in the upper grades such industrial training as may fit them for a vocational career." The training may lead through an apprenticeship to the position of foreman or factory superintendent, or through further technical training to various fields of engineering.²⁴ This school is the Baldorioty de Castro Graded and Technical School. As the name implies it is a public graded school, offering advantages for prevocational training.

The course has been so arranged that boys in the seventh grade get an opportunity to acquaint themselves with the various types of occupations offered by the school. An effort is made to ascertain the natural abilities of the students, acquainting them with the character of the work available in industry, observing their shortcomings and aptitudes and discovering their limitations of mind and body.

At the end of the first year, the boys and the parents are consulted, and based on the reports of the teachers a selection of one of the courses offered is made. After the particular course has been selected, the boys specialize therein during the eighth and ninth grades, extending this study by related work in mechanical drawing, mathematics and academic subjects. Every instructor in the school has had an actual trade experience and is a specialist in his line. All shop work is done according to trade standards, by actual trade processes and approved methods of the commercial shop.²⁵ The school is new and in its period of formation. It is well equipped and should prove of great value in preparing boys for an actual occupation in life. The Island is in need of more schools of this type, but owing to their expense in equipment and administration it cannot afford many of them.

C. HOME ECONOMICS

Home Economics After the Failure of the Industrial Schools. The

²⁴*Ibid.*, 1920, p. 423.

²⁵*Ibid.*

Spanish woman seems to possess an exceptional aptitude for needle work of any kind. Needle work had always constituted a regular study in the curriculum of the Spanish public schools. Such being the case during the Spanish régime, girls' schools began as centers for religious instruction and needle work. With the change in sovereignty, the value of this work was not appreciated by the American authorities and it was eliminated from the course of study. Cooking was not taught in the Spanish schools. With the founding of the industrial schools, sewing and cooking were introduced as regular studies, but the failure of these schools eliminated this kind of instruction from the public school system, not to take its place again as a required study until 1913.

However, the natural aptitude of the Porto Rican woman for needle work, as well as the tradition that girls should be taught to sew, embroider and do drawn work in the schools, revived again this work and by 1909, in one district, classes in sewing were given in connection with the regular work of the graded schools. At the beginning of that school year, some of the lady teachers in the graded schools interested many of the older girls in the organization of a "School Girls Association." As it was natural, general needlework developed into one of the main features of the Association. The classes were held on Saturdays, three hours in the forenoon and two in the afternoon.

The girls were taught plain sewing, knitting, and needle lettering. The success of this Association interested the pupils and parents. In order to extend the work to other districts of the Island, the Commissioner of Education notified the school boards that he would approve small amounts as extra salaries for teachers who were competent and willing to teach sewing after school hours and on Saturdays.²⁶ The school boards responded so encouragingly to the suggestion of the Commissioner, that during the school year 1910-1911, a regular course in sewing was offered in fifty-six of the sixty-six towns of the Island at that time, and 5,241 girls or almost 76 per cent of those enrolled in the grades of the schools in which sewing was offered took advantage of the instruction.

In many places where the work was started so many girls enrolled that it was necessary to divide them into groups, each group receiving two or three lessons of one and a half hours duration each week. The groups met after regular school hours and on Saturday mornings.

²⁶*Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1910, p. 12.*

In many instances the school boards provided the equipment, while in others it was supplied by either the pupils or parents or both.²⁷ The course of study comprised graded work from the third to the eighth grades inclusive.²⁸

Popularity and Establishment of Home Economics as a Subject of the Curriculum. In 1910, courses in cooking were offered to the girls in the high and grammar schools of San Juan. The course included lessons in the hygiene of cooking and digestibility of the different kinds of food. The girls were taught to set a table and how to wait on guests.²⁹ Instruction was continued the next year and extended to Rio Piedras, Juncos, and Yauco. The total enrollment for the year was 159.³⁰ The attitude of the general public was very favorable, and the department appointed a teacher of cooking and sewing to each continuation school and made instruction in these subjects obligatory in these schools.³¹

The next school year witnessed great progress in the instruction of sewing and cooking. Although two school boards were not able to continue their support to the sewing classes, 54 towns offered work to over 5,000 girls, who were found in all grades from first to tenth inclusive. The classes were held as a rule after school hours and Saturday forenoons. The work by this time had extended beyond plain sewing, and among the articles made could be found all sorts of articles of daily use, such as slippers, handkerchiefs, pillow-cases, dresses, waists, table covers, napkins, laundry bags, hand bags, book covers, night-gowns, aprons, corset covers, doilies, laces, embroidery, sheets, drawn-work, kimonos, cushions, brush-holders, etc.³²

The cooking classes also progressed, instruction being offered in 13 municipalities with an enrollment of 361. With the exception of San Juan, the local boards furnished the equipment. Some municipalities offered instruction in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades while it was required only in the ninth and tenth grades.³³ The next year fourteen towns offered instruction in cooking with an enrollment of 445, while 63 offered sewing with an enrollment of 6,329.³⁴

The pupils and the general public were interested, the school boards responded with their support. The girls were becoming proud that they could cook and many parents bought ovens and special cooking

²⁷*Ibid.*, 1911, pp. 189-191.

²⁸*Ibid.*, 1911, p. 192.

²⁹*Ibid.*, 1910, p. 11.

³⁰*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1911, p. 192.

³¹*Ibid.* ³²*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 225.

³³*Ibid.*, p. 226. ³⁴*Ibid.*, 1913, p. 337.

utensils in order that their daughters might make at home the things they had learned at school. The time was ripe to introduce home economics as a required subject in the course of study. A supervisor of home economics was appointed who prepared a course in cooking and sewing. Monthly bulletins were published and sent to the special teachers in home economics with specific instructions as to what should be done each day.

The subjects of health and sanitation as applied intimately to the home; the care of children and invalids; the proper feeding of children and adults; ventilation, cleanliness in the matter of person, clothing, and house; preparation and serving of foods, as well as the manner in which they are obtained, sold, and distributed; the manufacture of cloth, beginning with the more primitive methods, the proper selections of materials for garments for different purposes; colors, their combination and harmony; a small amount of work in textiles, and their manufacture; and the making of garments for outer wear, were all taken up during the year.³⁵ Instruction in home economics was made obligatory for all girls enrolled in the sixth to the tenth grades inclusive in the urban centers. Cooking was taught three days a week and sewing two days, five periods of fifty minutes each being devoted to this work each week in the grades as well as in the continuation schools.³⁶

The Teaching of Home Economics During the War. Home economics has been a required study in the curriculum since then. Instruction in this subject has been extended in some places, while in others, chiefly the small towns where there have not always been enough pupils, it has been discontinued temporarily. Owing to changed living conditions during the war the course of study in practical cooking was changed entirely. Since it was feared that communication with the mainland might be interrupted at any moment, thus depriving the Island of its weekly food supply from New York, bulletins were prepared to instruct students and their families in preparing a diet that would make use of local food products.³⁷

This furnished a good opportunity to study the native food products and to adapt the school course in cooking to local food problems. Mothers' classes were given once a week, where the use of wheat substitutes and war-time menus were studied. Such extension work

³⁵*Ibid.*, 1914, pp. 363-64.

³⁶*Ibid.* Compare also 1915 Report, p. 332.

³⁷*Ibid.*, 1918, p. 516.

was carried on by means of lectures and demonstrations by the teachers of home economics in some rural districts. An oven made from a five-gallon oil can was shown with a view to promote baking and decrease frying. Bread substitutes were taught and gardening encouraged.³⁸ The sewing classes studied the change produced in clothing problems during the war. Clothing conservation was taught as well as the purchase of durable clothing and the elimination of unessentials such as laces, ribbons, dress trimmings and jewelry; pajamas and refuge garments, bandages and other hospital articles were made and sent to the Red Cross.

New Course of Study in Home Economics. In 1919, Miss Elsie Mae Willsey was appointed special supervisor of home economics. She has prepared a new course of study in home economics for the elementary and high schools,³⁹ and has given a new impetus to the work. Before its publication the course was tried in the schools, five hours per week being devoted to home economics all through the year. The study of foods, clothing and household management was taken up. Special emphasis was given to the food values of native foods and to the selection and preparation of them. As far as possible the products of the school gardens were utilized. In the clothing and textile work, the aim was centered on giving the pupils work to meet present-day need, including designing and making of garments for the pupils and members of their families, with special stress on the selection and designing of material. In the course in household management, in addition to the work ordinarily given, special emphasis was put on home laundering and the pupils laundered each article made in the clothing class before taking it home.⁴⁰

The present course in home economics, besides the work in cooking and sewing, includes instruction in Porto Rican lace, millinery, menu making, marketing, home hygiene and care of the sick with infant and invalid dietetics, house planning and furnishing, house sanitation and household management. As arranged to-day, the work is specially prepared for the two upper grades of the elementary school and the first three years of the high school. With the rearrangement of the school system and the adoption of the 6-3-3 plan, now under consideration, instruction in home economics will become to a great extent the work of the Junior High School.

³⁸*Ibid.*, p. 517.

³⁹Willsey, Elsie Mae: *Course of Study in Home Economics for the Elementary and High Schools of Porto Rico.*

⁴⁰*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 422.*

Prevocational Work for Girls. Although many girls have left the schools and because of their training in sewing, dressmaking, lace making and millinery have been able to make a living, yet the general courses in home economics offered at the schools have not been given with the prevocational idea foremost, but rather to teach right standards of utilization and consumption, and to establish effective powers of working or performing productive functions in the home.⁴¹ Notwithstanding, dressmaking, lace making, drawn work and embroidery have been occupations of many women and girls for many years. There was no market for their articles during the Spanish régime but they would sell to the wealthier classes. With the American occupation and the opening of the Island to tourists, a market began to open. The American teachers have bought many of these native articles and have sold them in the States. Many of them have acted as agents for some firm in the North. Corporations in the States have sent their agents all over the Island to buy as much of these articles as possible.

In 1915 the supervisor of home economics, by direction of the department of education, began to give some official attention to this nascent industry. A market was created in the States, and the embroidering of ladies underwear was carried on extensively in many centers. The material to be embroidered was shipped to the Island from a firm in New York and the embroidered articles were returned for sale. Workers received pay varying with the quality and complexity of the work done.⁴²

Of late years there have been a number of firms engaged in the manufacture of hand-made articles, such as blouses, underwear, children's garments, handkerchiefs and others. One of the problems which these firms had to solve was the preparation of skilled workers, expert in needle work, who do not only know how to do the work, but who comply with a certain standard. To meet the demands for skilled work in these lines and at the same time to prepare women and girls to be self-supporting, the legislature made provision in 1919 for twenty instructors in needle work, embroidery and drawn work. These instructors were assigned to municipalities where prospects for success seemed best. Ten municipalities engaged their own instructors and financed the work. By double work on the part of instructors, thirty-four centers enjoyed the advantages of this work and a total of 2,325 were enrolled during the year. Classes met from

⁴¹Willsey, *op. cit.*, p. 3. ⁴²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1917, p. 467.

four to six on school days, and from nine to eleven, one to three, and three to five on Saturdays. Enrollment was opened to women and girls thirteen years of age or over.⁴³

The course of study was framed by Miss Willsey after conferences with manufacturers and includes problems of construction and decoration appearing in the respective articles manufactured. It aims first to prepare women and young women to earn a living, and second, to train expert workers to satisfy the increasing demands for workers in sewing and all kinds of needle work. At the end of the course if the work has been satisfactorily done the department grants a diploma of Graduate in Sewing, Embroidery and Drawnwork.⁴⁴

Native Industries. The traveller in Porto Rico may meet any moment along the road or in the streets of the cities, the hat vendor, or the hammock vendor, or a boy selling brooms, or he may meet a man selling ropes or another man loaded with all sorts of articles, and on examining he would see strings of beads of different varieties; mats and carpets, straw hand bags, bead curtains, wooden toys of all sorts, spoons and kitchen utensils made of higüera, palm leaf fans, etc. These constitute what is generally known in the Island as native industries. Many a poor peasant makes his living and supports a family entirely from one or several of these industries. In many interior districts there is an absolute lack of gainful occupations and many people depend on these native industries to earn a little money wherewith to buy the necessities of life. The hat weavers can make a good living if they have an assured market for their product, and the same could be said of others of these industries.

These articles are made from palm fiber, maguey, bejuco, emajagua bark, grasses, vines, bamboo, higüera, raffia, cocoanuts and other materials, all of which but raffia can be secured in the Island. However, as these industries are not established for exploitation, excepting hat weaving, no one exploits the source of raw material, and their success depends largely on the kind of raw material which may happen to grow in any particular region.

For the last fifteen years, the schools have given some attention to these native industries. A good many of the small articles have been made in the lower grades and have furnished material for manual work. Many municipalities have held special classes after school hours in hat weaving. Special teachers have been employed here and there, but these industries have not been placed firmly on

⁴³Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 422.

⁴⁴Willsey, *op. cit.*

a prevocational basis. It is not likely they will be placed on such a basis until adequate financial help can be secured to carry on the work, and a dependable source of raw material has been established.

Nevertheless, instruction in these industries has been offered for the last seven years in several municipalities. In 1919-1920, 37 of the 76 municipalities offered some instruction in the native industries in a total of 323 class rooms. Instruction was given in hat, basket, mat and hammock weaving; and broom and rope making. The work was done outside of school hours and was voluntary on the part of the teachers. No credit was given as school work. In these classes lace and embroidery were also made.⁴⁵ Besides the lack of funds to carry on the work and the uncertain supply of raw material, prevocational courses in native industries will not be successful until special teachers are trained for the work, the products standardized and a dependable market provided. Notwithstanding, these native industries furnish ample field for the extension of prevocational education.

D. AGRICULTURE

Sufficient data have already been given to show that Porto Rico is for the most part a rural community, and that the majority of the children of school age in the Island live in the country. Without doubt the subject of agriculture comes closer to the actual needs of the masses than any other in the school curriculum. Porto Rico is an agricultural island, and the teaching of agriculture in the schools is an economic and sociological necessity if the masses are to live rather than merely exist. The great majority of the laborers are employed in the cultivation of sugar cane, coffee, tobacco and fruits. Their wages are low and their families are large. In addition to low wages, any one acquainted with the facts knows that the laborers do not always work the whole day, that strikes are frequent and that the extent of unemployment and suffering during the dull seasons is tremendous.

The high price of sugar and tobacco during the war, and the draft which called to the colors several thousand laborers, remedied the wage problem somewhat, but the demobilization and the decrease in price of sugar and tobacco after the war left the laborers in a worse estate than before. The best way to help these people is by teaching them to get the most out of the soil, and the only way to reach them

⁴⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, pp. 424-25.*

is through the public schools, where they can be taught to improve their economic conditions by interest in and work on the soil.

The Agricultural Rural Schools. Instruction in agriculture was first given in what was called the agricultural rural schools. They were originally designed to offer besides the elementary school curriculum, instruction in the cultivation of the soil and the raising of the ordinary vegetables and farm products and experimentation in the scientific cultivation of plants in which the agricultural community in the neighborhood of the school might be interested. It was the intention that the work should be done by the pupils themselves, and that the work accomplished might have value not merely as an object lesson to the community, but also in the intellectual development of the pupils and in their preparation for their future careers.⁴⁶ These rural schools were organized on the same general lines as the common rural schools only that they had at least one acre of land around the school building available for purposes of practical cultivation. Due to the fact that there were no teachers prepared to teach in them and there was no special equipment for them, the schools did not have a good beginning. Nineteen were started altogether in different parts of the Island but some of them were soon changed into the regular common rural schools. They continued for several years and every year the regular common school work crowded out more and more the special feature for which they were established when at last they were merged into the rural school system and special instruction in agriculture was introduced into the regular elementary school curriculum.

The Teaching of Agriculture After the Failure of the Agricultural Rural Schools. On the failure of these schools, in order not to drop entirely from the curriculum the subject of agriculture, six special teachers of this subject were appointed and a plan was formulated by which the teachers of agriculture gave forty-five minute classes daily to all pupils enrolled in the graded system of the towns to which they were assigned from the third grade up; and aside from this two hours or more weekly for actual field work.⁴⁷ Although the work was limited to a few municipalities, it was a success, over 1,200 pupils receiving instruction in agriculture, practical work in school gardening being conducted hand in hand with the theoretical work.

The success was such that plans began to be formulated immediate-

⁴⁶*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1902, p. 19.*

⁴⁷*Ibid.*, 1910, p. 11.

ly for the extension of instruction in this subject. The two main difficulties in extending the work for the next year were the impossibility to secure teachers competent to give instruction and the budgetary limitations. Due to the latter, only five teachers of agriculture could be appointed for the academic year 1910-1911, but the enrollment was higher than the year before, showing the interest in the work.⁴⁸ The budget for the next school year made provision for ten special teachers of agriculture, but owing to a lack of trained men available for this work, only seven appointments were made. They devoted their time teaching pupils of both graded and rural schools, holding conferences and classes for teachers, conducting public meetings in the country and arousing interest in agriculture in their respective districts.⁴⁹

Agriculture as a Subject of the Curriculum. The time was ripe for introduction of this subject into the curriculum, but there were not teachers specially prepared to teach it. With the end in view of preparing teachers of agriculture, the commissioner of education for the United States and the commissioner of education for Porto Rico in consultation at Washington decided that it was highly desirable to hold a series of one-week institutes throughout the Island for the purpose of giving instruction in agriculture to teachers in the rural and graded schools. The plan contemplated closing the schools in a given district for one week, assembling the teachers in a convenient central point, and requiring their attendance at the exercises of the institutes. This was put into effect for two years, with institutes in thirty-five districts the first year and in forty-one districts the second.

The institutes were discontinued in 1913 not because they were not successful, but because it meant that 150,000 pupils enrolled in the public schools were out of school one week in the year. Besides, teachers wishing to prepare to teach agriculture had plenty of opportunity to do so in the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, already in operation. As a result of this agricultural propaganda, the special preparation of teachers and the aid by budgetary provision, the subject of agriculture was given a place in the elementary school curriculum in 1913, to be required of all boys enrolled in grades sixth, seventh and eighth of the graded schools, two days a week, with the special teacher of agriculture giving the instruction. The teacher devoted the other three days a week to the supervision of the work in agriculture in the rural schools. Forty-one teachers of agri-

⁴⁸*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1911, p. 186.

⁴⁹*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 210.

culture were appointed for the entire calendar year at a salary of \$75 a month.⁵⁰ With the extension of the instruction in agriculture provision was made at the Insular Normal School for the preparation of teachers.⁵¹ The work functioned very successfully for a year.⁵²

Agricultural Instruction During the War. But this was only temporary, for the next academic year opened with the forty-one special teachers eliminated from the budget. This meant the elimination also of agriculture as a required subject in the urban schools, except in those centers where teachers took special interest and desired to do something after school hours. In twenty towns instruction in agriculture was carried on spasmodically and reports state that 807 pupils were given some instruction in this subject during the war. Agricultural instruction, although a required subject in the curriculum, went back to its former status after the failure of the agricultural schools.

However, circumstances now were quite different from those of 1908-1909. There were now teachers prepared to teach agriculture, and all rural teachers had had some instruction in the subject. Besides, the World War created special problems of food conservation. High prices and fear of lack of food supplies from the continent turned the attention of the people to the soil, which was cultivated and planted with native food crops. The department took advantage of these conditions and started its rural campaign. The rural teachers became interested in the work of rural uplift. They turned their attention to agriculture and the cultivation of home and school gardens. Ten special teachers of agriculture were appointed in 1916, who worked in co-operation with the special agents of the food commission.

All during the war, attention was centered on practical agriculture and work was carried on in every school that had land available for demonstration plots. Girls as well as boys were taught to cultivate home gardens and many women teachers were as successful in teaching gardening as the men.⁵³ Necessity made the teaching of agriculture not only successful but practical.

Instruction in Agriculture Today. After the war the budget was increased so that instruction in agriculture could be resumed. In 1919, forty special teachers of agriculture were appointed, and the same number was continued for 1920-1921. Besides the work of

⁵⁰Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1913, p. 335. ⁵¹Ibid., p. 336.

⁵²Compare Report of 1914, p. 362.

⁵³Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 553.

teaching in the urban schools, they devoted part of their time to the instruction of other teachers. Speaking of their duties and work, the Commissioner of Education reported that they were in charge of the school and home garden movements in their respective districts. They assisted in obtaining a satisfactory enrollment and maintaining attendance and were the leaders in the rural uplift movement, assisting teachers in organizing conferences among country people. They also acted as intermediates between farmers and the Insular and Federal experiment stations. In one district vanilla slips were distributed and the people were instructed how to cultivate the plant, and cure the beans, resulting in the establishment of an industry which promises to be very profitable. In several municipalities farmers have been encouraged to plant soy beans which have been used instead of the more expensive oil protein food imported from the States.

The people of Porto Rico have been very careless in animal breeding, and now the teachers of agriculture are taking some interest in this line. They are helping the children to form pig and poultry clubs and have aided the farmers in procuring better breeds of pigs and poultry than those commonly found. The teachers are also helping the small farmer financially. Porto Rico banks charge a high per cent of interest. Some teachers have helped in establishing co-operative societies and securing loans of money at a lower interest than usual. The agricultural teachers are beginning to co-operate with the Department of the Interior in securing the necessary action to make operative the law covering the irrigation project. Thirty-six school fairs were held during 1919-1920 at which \$3,246 were distributed in prizes to teachers and pupils.⁵⁴ During the academic year 1920-21 instruction in agriculture was given in 1,715 different classrooms, fifty school fairs were held, and 39,672 home gardens were cultivated through the efforts of the school.⁵⁵ It is to be hoped that the present interest will continue, whatever the policies of the department of education may be in the future and that the school will do her full share in preparing the masses of future citizens to be self-supporting.

E. AUXILIARY EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

Extra-Curricular Activities. Extra-curricular activities introduced into the public schools with the American occupation were a novelty to the people. Such activities were unknown in the Spanish schools.

⁵⁴*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920, p. 424.*

⁵⁵*The Porto Rico School Review, Vol. 6, No. 1, Sept. 1921, p. 11.*

These did not even have a period of recess during the daily session, much less games and other activities connected with the school. The work in Physical Education is carried on in connection with athletics as the climate permits outdoor sports all the year round.

The first to introduce the idea of athletics into Porto Rico were the American soldiers. No sooner had they landed, unhitched their horses and mules and pitched their tents, than they were playing "catch," and from this, if there was enough ground, a regular base-ball game would follow. As was natural it did not take long for the children to be playing "catch" also. They also began to improvise some sort of base-ball. As soon as games were introduced into the schools, base-ball became the favorite game among the children. But organized playground work as a policy of the department of education did not come until 1908. Prior to that the playground established in Ponce by the Playground Association of Porto Rico was the only one in the Island.

The playground movement was welcomed by the municipalities and school boards generally cooperated in the movement, donating and buying land and providing funds for equipment. The movement was such a success that by 1913 a general supervisor of playgrounds and athletics was appointed. He prepared a course in physical education, which was put into operation in September 1913 as an integral part of the school curriculum and required of all children. He had direct charge of all the work in physical culture given in all the schools, he was to supervise and encourage the development of the playgrounds

School Year	Towns with Playgrounds	Land set aside for Playgrounds 1908—1915	Total Money Spent for Playgrounds, 1908—1915	Children using Urban Play- grounds
		(Acres)		
1908-1909	27	24	\$3,000	5,000
1909-1910	45	50	8,250	15,000
1910-1911	52	58	19,746	18,420
1911-1912	58	59	30,737	23,902
1912-1913	61	61½	43,209	26,564
1913-1914	65	72¾	54,538	29,008
1914-1915	68	75⅞	59,982	34,015 ⁵⁶

⁵⁶*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 336.

movement in the different towns and direct all forms of athletics connected with the public school system.⁵⁷

The preceding table will show the growth of the movement and the increase from year to year until 1915 in the number of towns providing playground facilities for children; the amount of land utilized for the purpose, the amount of money expended for the purchases of sites, equipment, etc., and the number of public school children making use of the facilities furnished.

The following table shows the number of organized teams in the different branches of athletics:

	Base Ball	Track	Basket Ball	Total
Prior to 1913	44	18	2	64
1913-1914	55	28	27	110
1914-1915	73	39	58	170. ⁵⁸

Since 1910 there has existed an Interscholastic Athletic Association of Porto Rico, the membership of which is made up of the local associations of the different schools and towns. All the school athletics are directly in charge of the board of directors of this association. The constitution and by-laws are subject to the approval of the Commissioner of Education.⁵⁹ For the purpose of athletic contests, meets and interscholastic games, all the children in the public schools are divided into three classes. In class A, only pupils regularly enrolled in the high schools and in the departments of the University may take part. Under class B, only pupils enrolled in the eighth grade and lower grades are eligible to take part. Under class C, pupils enrolled in any of the grades from the tenth downward in school systems which maintain continuation schools are allowed to enter.⁶⁰

Due to the war, the decrease in the budget and the attention shifted to military drill, the position of special supervisor of athletics was eliminated in 1914, and since that time the work in physical education has been carried on by the regular teachers, who followed the course of study prepared by the former supervisor. This position has been revived for the year 1921-1922, and it is hoped that it will continue, that the prewar enthusiasm will be revived and that athletics will preserve its proper place in connection with the public school system.

⁵⁷*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1913, p. 372. ⁵⁸*Ibid.*

⁵⁹*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 257.

⁶⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1910, p. 23.

This branch of extra-curricular activities is very important in Porto Rico. Besides their physical value, group athletics have a special social value for any people and especially so for people of Spanish blood and traditions. The Spaniard is an individualist. Independently he can do anything within his ability, but as a rule he will not cooperate. He is not a good loser, but wants victory first, last and always. Group athletics in Porto Rico have developed cooperation, and team work among the children, respect for authority and for the rules of the game. At the same time the children are learning to be as good losers as winners and good sportsmen.

Although base-ball is the favorite game, and anywhere one may go children and young men may be seen playing some form of the game, yet there are other popular games and sports, such as circle ball, straddle ball, circle wind or maze-without ball, prisoner's base, line volley ball, basket ball, soccer and track and field sports. The inter-scholastic meet is an annual affair and any one from the continent witnessing one of these at the Hippodrome grounds in San Juan would not see much difference from like events in the North, while the enthusiasm, Latin in nature, generally runs higher than among Anglo-Saxon people.

School Days and Festivals. During the Spanish régime there were many holidays and festivals due to the fact that the church holidays were kept as well as the insular and national. On holidays schools would close, no entertainment of any kind being provided for the day unless church attendance was required. Since the American occupation the holidays have furnished an opportunity for special study in the class room in preparation for the day. Such days as Washington's and Lincoln's birthdays, Memorial Day, have been used as the basis for the study of American ideals and patriotism. It is very easy for people of Spanish countries to celebrate anything, always being ready to make the most of an opportunity for a good time, easily throwing all their enthusiasm into whatever is to be celebrated. Such being the case the school holidays and celebrations are celebrated not only by the children, but by the parents as well. A school celebration is a municipal celebration. Thus such events have furnished an excellent means of establishing closer relations between the schools and the public. Exhibits of work done in the class room are usually displayed, giving the parents some idea of what is being done in school. Some of the days observed are: Washington's Birthday, Lincoln's Birthday, Mother's Day, Armistice Day, Colum-

bus Day, Thanksgiving Day, Abolition Day, Memorial Day, Arbor Day. The usual programme for these celebrations consists of recitations, songs, speeches, both by the children and by citizens, street parades, short dramas, and concerts. At the close of the school year, commencement exercises have unusual significance in the life of the community and the most is made of the event in every community having a graduating class of any kind.

School Bands. For the last twelve years school bands have been a special feature in many municipalities. They have not always been successful in all the municipalities, the number of municipalities having them varying from time to time, but as a general rule the school band movement has been very successful. The teachers and equipment have generally been provided by the local school officials, while many boys gifted in music have purchased their own instruments and pursued in part a musical career. Instrumental music plays a very important part in the social life of the Island, and nearly every town has a municipal band. In many towns the school bands have taken their place in the social life of their respective communities, thus many school boys have had an opportunity to earn some money. School bands furnish the music at school festivals, school exercises, teachers' conferences, at meetings of parents' associations and athletic meets. They also give evening concerts at the public plazas, while church festivals and funerals often call on them to furnish the music.⁶¹

Physical and Social Welfare. The one activity originating with the teachers in cooperation with citizens is the school lunch movement. As already mentioned, the greatest problem of Porto Rico is poverty. Thousands of children go to school undernourished, pale and anemic. It is impossible for these children to do satisfactory school work. The movement originated some ten years ago, but its growth has been very slow due principally to lack of funds. The growth has been made possible in recent years by the increased support of the municipalities together with that of the legislature. The latter appropriated \$10,000 for the year 1919-1920, thus making possible a large increase in school lunches. Supervisors unanimously declare that the establishment of the school lunch rooms has been immediately followed by more regular attendance and greatly improved class-room work.⁶²

⁶¹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1919, p. 576.*

⁶²Detailed account of School Lunch movement may be found in the reports of the

School Activities Connected With the Prosecution of the War. Among the many activities of the schools connected with the prosecution of the war, such as the selling of War Savings and Thrift Stamps, and Liberty Bonds, and the activities of the Victory Boys and Junior Red Cross, the latter rendered excellent service during the war and has continued its activities. Of the Junior Red Cross the Commissioner of Education has said:—"Aside from the rural campaign which has been carried on by the department in recent years, there is no other supplementary activity or agency connected with the educational work that has attained the importance of the Junior Red Cross, and it deserves corresponding credit for the various lines of meritorious work performed."⁶³ The Junior Red Cross was organized in 1917, and immediately after its organization was called upon to help in the many civic and patriotic undertakings in which the schools took such a large part during the war. As soon as the Armistice was signed it prepared a peace programme which is being carried out with enthusiasm that characterized all its work during the war. The size of the organization and its activities have so increased since the war, that it has been necessary to employ a person to devote all of her time to the activities of the organization, under the official name of Executive Secretary. Her salary represents the only running expenses of the Chapter.

"The Society is to-day stronger than ever and is planning for the future. At the invitation of the department of education and the Junior Red Cross, the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor will carry on a Children's Year Survey in Porto Rico. Matters pertaining to the health of the child as well as to the recreation and play will be given most attention. A Child Health Campaign will be launched in December, with a health week, inaugurated at the annual session of the Teachers' Association. The Recreation and Playground movement will be launched this summer."⁶⁴ As it will be seen in these data the Junior Red Cross has developed into a Child Welfare Organization and its work is most effective in such a large and needed child population as Porto Rico has.

Commissioner of Education since 1917, and especially in the late reports which show the growth of the movement.

⁶³*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1920.*

⁶⁴For data dealing with the activities of the Junior Red Cross see *The Porto Rico School Review*, for Sept. 1921, pp. 40-47.

SUMMARY OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

A perusal again of educational conditions in Porto Rico at the end of the Spanish dominion as presented in the first part of this work and a review of the progress made in two decades of American occupation would bring forth the contrast of what Porto Rico accomplished in education under the Spanish government in four hundred years and what she has accomplished in twenty years under the government of the United States. The writer can not improve upon the report of Dr. Paul G. Miller, recently Commissioner of Education to Porto Rico. Dr. Miller came to Porto Rico as a young man in 1898. He saw conditions as they were then, and since has given the greater part of his services to the public schools of the Island.

He reports to the Governor as follows: "Complaints are occasionally made that the school system as at present organized does not fulfill its mission, that facilities are not available for many children of school age and that a comparatively small number are actually enrolled in the schools. This charge is abundantly true, but the persons who make it are prone to forget the conditions that existed when the change in sovereignty occurred. Broadly speaking, at that time one child out of fifteen of school age attended school. During 1918-19 (twenty years after) facilities were available for one child out of three of school age. During the year ending June 1899, there were reported 212 town schools and 313 rural schools. There were 426 rural barrios without any whatever, excluding the municipalities of Barranquitas, Ciales, Comerio, Maunabo, Ponce, Yauco and Utuado, for which the number was not reported. The last named municipality included, at that time, Jayuya. Territorially speaking it is the largest in Porto Rico, and in 1899, with a population of 43,860, it had nine teachers and an attendance of only 262. In that municipality alone there were reported 14,894 school children without school facilities. In Ponce where the number of barrios without any educational advantages was not available at that time, there were reported 11,563 children without school facilities, and in Yauco 8,819. The enrollment for that year is reported as 19,804 boys and 9,378 girls, a total of 29,182, but only 14,720 boys and 7,153 girls, or 21,873 pupils, were reported to be in actual attendance. The total number of children between the ages of 4 and 16 years which was then the legal school age, who were without school accommodation, was reported as 268,630. The Federal Census Bureau estimated

the school population, that is, those between the ages of 5 and 18 years, to be 434,381 in July, 1919. Of this number the total enrollment was 160,381 or more than five and one-half times the number of children enrolled in 1899. The reader's attention is invited to the comparative table, giving the number of teachers, the enrollment, the barrios without school in 1919, and the increase in teachers and pupils. No detailed statistics as to enrollment by municipalities were found in 1899 and consequently the number in actual attendance has been given in each case."⁶⁵

Appendix IX shows the results of four hundred years of Spanish elementary education in Porto Rico. The figures speak for themselves. Nevertheless the work has just begun and the problem of popular education is still the great task to be accomplished. It is not only a problem of extension of school facilities but also a problem of adaptation to local aims and local needs. Elementary education in Porto Rico leaves much to be desired. A great deal has been done, and this has revealed what remains to be done. Much of the future depends on the support of public education, which in turn depends on the ability of the Island to increase her revenues for public education.

⁶⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1919, pp. 535-38.

CHAPTER XIII

SECONDARY, HIGHER AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The history of education in Porto Rico shows that, although elementary education was neglected, provision was always made for the education of the few in what might be called the secondary schools. History shows that at various times attempts were made to establish university studies. The idea of secondary and higher education was not new in the Island at the time of the American occupation, but the extension of education to reach the masses of the people was, if not new in theory, new in practice. It was hard for some people to understand that the establishment of elementary education should precede secondary education.

So when Dr. Brumbaugh began to establish the public school system, placing the emphasis on the extension of elementary education he met severe criticism from a few people who wished higher institutions of learning to be created before the elementary work was organized. Dr. Brumbaugh answered these critics that the greater need was to the larger number and pushed the elementary schools to the point of complete organization, giving the high school work only partial support.¹ Outside of the Insular Normal School for the preparation of teachers no support was given at first to collegiate and professional education.

Definition of Secondary Education. Secondary education in Porto Rico, since its organization, includes that educational training given to pupils who have completed an eight-year elementary course or its equivalent. It is given in two types of schools, known as high schools and continuation schools. Historically the high school came first. The high school in Porto Rico is the same as the traditional high school in the United States, that institution offering a four-year course of study beyond the elementary school of eight grades.

High School in San Juan. With the burning of the Model and Training School on July 1, 1900 no school facilities were left for pupils

¹*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1901, p. 61.*

of high school standing. There were not very many of them, only a few American children, and some of the pupils of the former "Instituto" who, according to Dr. Brumbaugh, were poorly prepared to do high school work.² On November 1, 1900, the English and Graded School of San Juan was established in the Beneficencia building and besides kindergarten and eight grades of elementary school, high school work was offered³ and carried on in two divisions, covering a three-year course, the English and the Spanish. The pupils of the former came up through the grades of the English Graded School and those of the latter came up through the grades of the five elementary schools of the city.

Other High Schools. The following year the Ponce high school was begun in connection with one of the graded schools. The eight grades which formerly constituted the so-called American school were taken over by this graded school and the first year of high school work was added. The pupils entering the ninth grade were the graduates from the eighth grade of the American school and from the Pujal Street graded school. Since all the pupils had come up from the elementary school and had been taught in English, all the work of the high school was begun in English, except the study of the Spanish language.⁴ In 1904, San Juan graduated its first high school class, the first in Porto Rico. The same year high school work began in Mayagüez with the ninth grade, for the eighth grade pupils who had finished in the elementary schools of that city. The Island had now three high schools. The Fajardo high school had been authorized, but it had no students of high school grade.⁵ For some time these three high schools were the only secondary schools and pupils from other towns came to them for their high school work.

Continuation Schools. Due to the fact that graduates from the eighth grade were increasing and that many of these wished to continue their studies but were unable to do so since they were scattered all over the Island and could not all be brought to the three high schools maintained, the department of education began to establish "continuation schools" in some of the larger centers of population for the purpose of taking the pupils upon the completion of the common school course and carrying them one, two or three years (generally two), further in their educational career without the necessity of

²*Report of the Commissioner of Education of Porto Rico*, 1901, p. 62.

³*Ibid.*, 1900, p. 21.

⁴*Ibid.*, 1903, p. 173.

⁵*Ibid.*, 1905, p. 12.

leaving home. Thus the continuation school began as an extension of the elementary school course and not separate from it.

During the year 1909-1910, the first year of the continuation schools, eighteen schools were maintained, that is, eighteen municipalities offered the first or the first and second years of the high school course.⁶ As soon as these schools were established a curriculum was formulated for them based principally upon manual training for boys and cooking and sewing for girls, but the academic studies of the regular high school course of study were pursued also, so that the pupils could enter any of the four-year high schools and receive full credit for the work done in the continuation schools. However, although emphasis is placed on these two studies the continuation schools are far from being prevocational or vocational schools and do not fit the students for specific vocation. They were established mainly to provide further study beyond the eighth grade.

Continuation Schools Developed into High Schools. Since the establishment of the continuation schools, the growth of secondary education has been rapid. These schools furnished a nucleus upon which to build high schools offering the four-year course of study. So it has happened that eight continuation schools have grown into high schools. That of Arecibo became a high school and graduated its first class in 1912.⁷ Humacao offered a four-year course in 1913.⁸ Bayamón, Yauco, Guayama, Aguadilla, Fajardo and Caguas advanced their continuation schools into high schools and offered a four-year course in 1916.⁹ This makes a total of eleven high schools, which is the number in operation to-day. Besides the high schools, the University of Porto Rico maintains a University High School in Río Piedras and subcollegiate work in Mayagüez. The number of continuation schools has varied from time to time, some being discontinued upon lack of sufficient pupils. In 1920, there were eleven high schools with an enrollment of 2,687 pupils and twenty-two continuation schools with an enrollment of 944 pupils. These engaged 108 high school and 57 continuation school teachers. The eleven high schools graduated 399 students, 234 of these in the general course and 105 in the commercial course.¹⁰

The Courses of Study. The basis for admission to the high and continuation schools is the common school diploma received by all

⁶*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1910, p. 8.

⁷*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1912, p. 207.

⁸*Ibid.*, 1913, p. 326. ⁹*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 464.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, 1920, p. 421.

who satisfactorily complete the work of the eighth grade, but admission may also be obtained by examination or by certificate from the schools of acknowledged standing. Since the general aim of the high schools has been to prepare for college, the course of study has been based on the college entrance requirements and has varied accordingly as these requirements have varied. In 1906, San Juan graduates were represented in Cornell, Princeton, Dickinson, and Rutgers; while Ponce graduates were to be found in Cornell, Syracuse, and University of Pennsylvania.¹¹

In 1905, a commercial course was established in the three high schools in operation. The course offered two years in commercial subjects and at the end of the two years a commercial certificate was granted.¹² The courses of study continued the same with more or less changes until the fall of 1913, when the commercial course was increased to four years and at its completion a commercial high school diploma was granted.¹³ The high schools offered now two courses, a general course in preparation for college and a commercial course in preparation for business. With the exception of Spanish, which is taught as a subject, the official language of the high school is English. Both languages are mastered as far as possible and commercial students are prepared to work in both. Many graduates of the high schools of Porto Rico hold responsible positions in offices in New York and other parts of the United States where a knowledge of both Spanish and English is required.

Buildings and Equipment. No special provision for high school buildings was made until 1913. Before that, high school work was conducted in the same buildings with graded schools or in rented buildings not at all fitted for the purpose, thereby considerably hampering the work. The legislative assembly at its session of 1913 appropriated the sum of \$150,000, for the construction of four new high school buildings, one in San Juan, one in Ponce, one in Mayagüez and one in Arecibo, on condition that the school boards of these cities furnished the necessary sites and contributed a total of \$90,000 toward the construction and equipment of the buildings.¹⁴ Although the insular legislature did not appropriate any money for the high school building at Humacao, nevertheless the school board of that city purchased a tract of some three acres of land and obtained a

¹¹*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1906, p. 97.*

¹²*Ibid.*

¹³*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico, 1914, p. 360.* ¹⁴*Ibid.*

loan from the insular government. It immediately began construction on a thirty-five thousand dollar high school building,¹⁴ which was ready for occupancy September 1914. The Ponce building although not finished was ready to house the high school in January 1915, and the Arecibo building was ready for September 1915.

The expenditure of these buildings was as follows: Humacao, \$33,100; Arecibo, \$50,000; and Ponce, \$150,000. In addition to this expenditure, the department fully equipped these buildings with the necessary furniture and laboratory apparatus, so that from a material standpoint the secondary schools were now for the first time in exceptionally good condition.¹⁵ The Mayagüez building was erected at a cost of \$50,000 and was ready for use in 1917.¹⁶ However six high schools have been added since and as they stand to-day comparatively few possess adequate housing facilities. Only the four named above occupy buildings specially constructed for the purpose.

The Central High School in San Juan is still in temporary quarters, but plans are being formulated for the erection of a \$400,000 building to accommodate 1,200 pupils. The Fajardo high school has been transferred to a building the gift of Dr. Santiago Veve. This building has been remodeled for the purpose. The high schools of Aguadilla, Bayamón, Guayama, Yauco and Caguas are still grouped with grammar rooms in elementary school buildings. Only the four high schools with buildings are now adequately equipped. Some have rather meagre equipment, while others are not in a position to make use of more equipment because of lack of space.¹⁷

Higher and Professional Education. The one institution offering higher and professional education is the University of Porto Rico. It was established by act of the insular legislature, approved March 12, 1903, to "provide the inhabitants of Porto Rico as soon as possible with the means of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the various branches of literature, science and useful arts, including agriculture and mechanical trades, and with professional and technical courses in medicine, law, engineering, pharmacy, and in the science and art of teaching."¹⁸ The government of the University was "vested in a board of trustees composed of the Governor of Porto Rico as a member and its honorary president, the commissioner of education as a mem-

¹⁴*Ibid.*, 1915, p. 325. ¹⁶*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 364.

¹⁷*Ibid.*, 1919, p. 565.

¹⁸The Law Establishing the University of Porto Rico. *Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1903, p. 251.

ber and its president, the attorney-general, the secretary and the treasurer of Porto Rico as ex-officio members and six other members, one of whom shall be the speaker of the house of delegates; to be appointed by the governor of Porto Rico for a term of three years.”¹⁹

The membership of the board was changed later to seven members composed of the Commissioner of Education, the treasurer of Porto Rico and the speaker of the house of representatives as members ex-officio, and four other members appointed by the Governor for an unlimited term of office. The Commissioner of Education is president of the board of trustees and Chancellor of the University. The immediate government of the University is entrusted to the Chancellor and the respective faculties.²⁰

The law further provided that the University should consist of the following departments, to be organized in the order of their importance as soon as the necessary funds might be available:

(1) “A normal department, to be known as the insular normal school, for the training of teachers in the subjects taught in the public schools of Porto Rico and to be supported by annual appropriation by the legislative assembly.”

(2) “An agricultural and mechanical department, for the training of teachers and for the promotion of agricultural and mechanic arts, to be maintained in conformity with an act of Congress approved August 30, 1890, being an act entitled, ‘An act to apply a portion of the proceeds of the public lands to the more complete endowment and support of the colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts, established under the provision of an act of Congress approved July 2, 1862,’ and the legislative assent required by section two of the act of Congress approved August 30, 1890, is hereby given and the conditions imposed by that act, as well as those imposed by the act of Congress approved July 2, 1862, are hereby accepted and imposed by this act upon the University of Porto Rico, and all moneys accruing thereunder are accepted under the conditions and terms in said acts named.”

(3) “A department of the natural sciences and engineering.”

(4) “A department of liberal arts.”

(5) “A department of medicine.”

¹⁹The Law Establishing the University of Porto Rico. *Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1903, p. 251, Sec. 2.

²⁰The same law, Sec. 7., *op. cit.* p. 252, and the *Annual Catalog and Announcement of the University of Porto Rico*, 1921-22, p. 23.

- (6) "A department of law."
- (7) "A department of pharmacy."
- (8) "A department of architecture."
- (9) "A university hospital."
- (10) "And such other departments germane to a well-equipped university as the board of trustees may from time to time be able to establish."²¹

Of the above departments, the normal department, to-day the Normal College, was the first to be established and has already been considered fully in connection with the teaching profession.

The College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. Directly in the rear of the grounds of the normal department, the department of education acquired a farm of about one hundred acres which was transferred to the University after its organization as the site of its college of agriculture, thus giving it a property of one hundred and twenty-three acres located at Rio Piedras, seven miles from the capital, San Juan.²² The agricultural department of the University was organized in 1904, the first pupils being received February 3, 1905.²³

In the spring of 1908, the board of trustees decided to discontinue instruction in agriculture for the academic year, and devote its energies to the development of the farm as a successful demonstration plant for students. This was carried out and enough progress was made to warrant the reopening of the school for the academic year, 1909-1910. A dairy was established and the cultivation of many of the native products begun, on a small experimental scale. The school opened with forty students and five instructors, but handicapped by lack of public interest, it was almost impossible to secure students sufficiently advanced in education to fully profit by the instruction given.²⁴

In 1908, the government of the United States extended to Porto Rico the benefits of the Morrill-Hatch funds to go toward the maintenance of the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. Immediately after, the insular legislature made appropriations for the purchase of land and for the construction of a college building in Mayagüez. The land consisting of one hundred acres was purchased during

²¹The Law Establishing the University of Porto Rico, Sec. 8, *Report of the Commissioner of Education of Porto Rico*, 1903, p. 252.

²²*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1912, p. 280.

²³*Ibid.*, 1911, p. 247.

²⁴*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1910, p. 38.

the following year. It adjoins the land of the United States experiment station. In 1911, the students were removed from Rio Piedras to Mayagüez and were given instruction in the Mayagüez high school. A faculty was selected January 1, 1912, and the department of agriculture of the University of Porto Rico opened the following September under the name of The College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts of the University of Porto Rico.²⁵

It began its academic work with an enrollment of 126 students and a faculty of eighteen members, offering courses in sugar-chemistry, agriculture, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, civil engineering, home economics and special work.²⁶ A five-year undergraduate course of study was offered, accepting as entrance requirements the diploma of the eighth grade of the public schools.²⁷ The standards advanced rapidly, keeping pace with the progress in the public school system. To-day this college corresponds to those colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts in the States. Besides the four-year college courses, a preparatory course of two years is offered, as it has been found that the training of these two years results in better mastery of the collegiate courses. The requirements for admission to the collegiate courses have been kept at fifteen units as the recognized standard. High school graduates are admitted directly into the college courses.²⁸

College of Liberal Arts. So far no provision had been made for students wishing to pursue a collegiate course in the liberal arts. There was not a liberal arts college in the American sense of the word, and students wishing such training had to go to the States. To meet the growing demand for a more cultural college course, where at the same time some preparation for scientific study could be obtained, the board of trustees, at its meeting of April 4, 1910, authorized the department of liberal arts to take up the work at the end of the high school course and continue it on the basis equal to the universities in the United States. A temporary dean was appointed and two instructors authorized, the balance of the instruction to be given by the teachers of the normal department.²⁹

The college course was inaugurated September 1910. The entrance requirements were those of the college entrance examination boards of the United States. A course of study of two years was

²⁵*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1912, p. 282.

²⁶*Ibid.*, 1913, p. 397. ²⁷*Ibid.*, 1912, p. 282.

²⁸*Ibid.*, 1920, p. 463.

²⁹*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1910, p. 39.

offered, the intention being to arrive at some understanding with some of the best universities in the north so that students pursuing the two-year course could be transferred to the States and obtain a college degree on the completion of two years' study, thus combining the advantages of a reasonable cost of education with the advanced culture of the older universities in the continent.³⁰ The college, however, developed a four-year course soon and granted its first degree in June 1915. During the same year it offered post-graduate work for the purpose of obtaining the degree of Master of Sciences. This was the first post-graduate work to be given on the Island.³¹

To-day the courses in the College of Liberal Arts are designed to meet the needs of the following classes of students: (1) Those who wish to take a four-year college course for general culture; (2) Those for whom the four-year college course will serve as a basis for advanced professional or technical studies later; (3) Those intending to enter a medical college and matriculating in the two-year pre-medical course. The degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science are conferred upon students satisfactorily completing the corresponding four-year courses, both of these are liberal or cultural courses, the latter involving specialization (major and minor work) in the natural sciences or mathematics rather than in other departments. The two-year pre-medical course leads to no degree, diploma or formal certificate other than the regular certificate of credits and marks which are given to any University students upon request.³²

The Colleges of Law and Pharmacy. As recorded in another chapter, law was one of the traditional professions, with perhaps pharmacy as a close second. Therefore, academic work of collegiate rank could not exist long without a demand for studies in these two professions. The colleges of law and pharmacy were authorized by the legislature in 1913 and opened the following September. As was to be expected these two colleges were patronized immediately, opening with entering classes of nineteen and twenty-four students respectively. Since their beginning the entrance requirements of both colleges demand the completion of a high school course or its equivalent. The College of Law offered a course of study of three

³⁰*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico*, 1910, p. 39.

³¹*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1915, p. 393.

³²*Annual Catalog and Announcement of the University of Porto Rico*, 1921-1922, p. 43.

years, based on the subjects required by the Supreme Court of Porto Rico. The College of Pharmacy offered a course of two years, based on the requirements of the Insular Board of Pharmacy, with such additions as local conditions demanded.³³

In 1917, the law course was increased to four years and the pharmacy course to three.³⁴ Since the latter did not prove popular with students and was evidently thought too long, the work was reorganized in 1919, offering both the two and the three-year courses, the first leading to the degree of Graduate Pharmacist, and the supplementary course of one year leading to the degree of Pharmaceutical Chemist.³⁵ The four-year course in the College of Law leads to the degree of Bachelor of Laws. It is fully adapted to the laws and conditions in Porto Rico.

As it stands to-day, the University of Porto Rico comprises the colleges in Rio Piedras, that is, the Normal College, the College of Liberal Arts, the College of Law and the College of Pharmacy; and in Mayagüez, the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. No other collegiate or professional departments have been established on account of lack of funds in the insular budget to maintain them.³⁶ Tuition in the Normal and Liberal Arts Colleges is gratis; in the other colleges there is a tuition fee not exceeding fifty dollars a year. The University is thus the culmination of the public school system, the last step of the American educational ladder.

Resources of the University. The University is maintained by the following funds and appropriations:

1. The University Fund: The sources of this fund are as follows (a) All escheated inheritances in Porto Rico, (b) Fifty per cent of all fines imposed by the courts of Porto Rico, which are paid into the Insular Treasury, except those imposed for cruelty to animals, and (c) Royalties from all franchises or public rights. This fund is available for the current expenses of the University, the repair of buildings and general expenses of operation.

2. Permanent University Fund: Twenty-five per cent of all proceeds from the sale of public lands in Porto Rico is set aside for this fund. Seventy-five per cent of the income from the investments of this fund is available for the payments of current expenses, the purchase of equipment or the construction of buildings. The

³³*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1914, p. 407.

³⁴*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 504. ³⁵*Ibid.*, 1919, p. 611.

³⁶See Appendix VII. Table II. For expenses in higher and professional education.

remaining twenty-five per cent must be reinvested in reliable securities.

3. The Morrill Fund: The University receives annually the sum of \$50,000 under a federal act providing for the maintenance of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.

4. A variable amount appropriated annually by the insular legislature.

5. Tuition, matriculation, laboratory and miscellaneous fees.³⁷

Equipment. All buildings and grounds of the University have been provided through funds appropriated by the insular legislature. At Rio Piedras, the University owns a farm of one hundred and thirty acres and at Mayagüez it has a campus of thirty acres and a farm of one hundred acres. The College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts was housed mainly in two concrete buildings, one with four laboratories and six class rooms and the other a ten-room concrete building. Besides these there are outside buildings for the shops, plant houses, stables, dairy, chicken runs and swine yards. These buildings were well equipped with the necessary laboratories and scientific apparatus for the technical courses offered in the college. The earthquake of October 11, 1918 destroyed one of the buildings completely together with the chemical, bacteriology and plant pathology laboratories. Since then the lost equipment has been replaced slowly and more additions have been made.

The Material Accommodations of the Rio Piedras Colleges are as Follows: A two-story concrete building, called the normal building; the Baldorioty building, a two-story reinforced concrete building; the assembly hall and gymnasium building; the manual training shops; laboratories of chemistry, physics, biology, pharmacy, physiology, and bacteriology, cooking and sewing; residences for the dean and six other families, and the Practice School building, a two-story concrete structure. The library, housed in the north wing of the Baldorioty building, contains about 14,000 volumes, exclusive of the reports and pamphlets issued by the government. Standard fiction and works of reference, both in Spanish and in English, are available for all departments of the University. The Degetau art collection, some three hundred pictures left by Mr. Federico Degetau upon his death is a part of the equip-

³⁷Annual Catalog of the University of Porto Rico, 1921-1922, p. 23.

ment of which the University is very proud. These are hung in the library and Practice School.³⁸

The life of the University is similar to that of like institutions in the north. There are no dormitories either in Mayagüez or Rio Piedras, but the students live close by in the towns and are near enough to the colleges to spend most of their time in University activities. The customary undergraduate activities in the way of literary societies, scientific and social clubs, etc. are found here. Popular among the activities of the University are those connected with the Athletic Association and Military Science and Tactics. All male students take military drill, while all students of the University must be members of the Athletic Association and participate in its activities.

Scholarships. The government of Porto Rico has at various times made provisions for the maintenance of deserving students at different educational institutions in Porto Rico and in the United States through the establishment of scholarships, thus making it possible for the bright pupil in the remotest barrio within the Island to be carried through to graduation at the best universities in the States entirely as government scholarship students. The following were the classes of scholarships provided for: Graded, high school, college of agriculture, normal school, industrial, professional and municipal. The number of scholarships has varied from time to time according as appropriation was made to supply them.

Legislation secured in 1908, empowered the school boards to use not more than five per cent of their total income for the purpose of maintaining in the graded schools, pupils who had completed with credit the work of the rural schools. This enables the bright pupils of the rural districts to obtain common school diplomas as scholarship students.³⁹

To students who have received their common school diplomas there were open through appointment by the Commissioner of Education scholarships of an annual value of one hundred and eight dollars in the high schools. These were distributed equally as far as possible among the different electoral districts. Since there were no charges for tuition, text-books and supplies, it was possible for the student to support himself entirely on the scholarship. These were renewed from year to year until the high school course of four years was com-

³⁸*Annual Catalog of the University of Porto Rico, 1921-22, pp. 24-27.*

³⁹*The School Laws of Porto Rico, 1914, Act. of Feb. 19, 1908, Secs. 207-210 inclusive, pp. 57-58.*

pleted, unless the student's record was such as to warrant revoking of his scholarship. When the Agricultural College received graduates from the eighth grade, and the pupil desired to enter this school instead of the high school, there were open to him scholarships ranging in value from forty to one hundred dollars. These were granted by the Commissioner of Education.⁴⁰

For some time a number of scholarships were maintained for pupils who had finished the ninth grade and desired to become teachers. These scholarships were of an annual value of one hundred and eighty dollars and were granted only to students entering the first year of the Normal College, but could be continued under certain restrictions until the completion of the course.⁴¹

Still another class of scholarships was open to graduates of the eighth grade. A number of these of an annual value of \$250 each were available for colored boys completing the common school course. They were selected by the Commissioner of Education and were sent to Tuskegee Institute, Hampton Institute or other schools of a similar character to pursue studies or trades.⁴²

For a number of years the insular government maintained a number of scholarships of an annual value of \$500 dollars each, available to graduates of high schools for the purpose of studying in the colleges and universities of the United States. In the case of men, preference was given to those who wished to fit themselves as scientific agriculturists, engineers or foresters. Many young men and women of Porto Rico have been beneficiaries of this class of scholarships and have studied and graduated from such universities and colleges as Columbia University, Cornell University, University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania State College, Ohio State University, University of Michigan, University of Louisiana, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.⁴³

The legislative assembly of 1911 enacted a law empowering the municipalities to maintain under certain restrictions, scholarship students in colleges and universities in the United States. Beneficiaries of these scholarships were required by law to pursue courses leading to degrees in one of the following subjects: Agriculture,

⁴⁰*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914, Act of March 14, 1907, as amended Feb. 15, 1908, Secs. 194-199 inclusive, pp. 54-55.

⁴¹*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, Act of March 12, 1903, as amended March 1, 1906, and March 12, 1908, Secs. 200-206 inclusive, pp. 55-57.

⁴²*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914, Secs. 176-178 inclusive p. 52.

⁴³*The School Laws of Porto Rico*, 1914, Secs. 174-176; 180-193, pp. 51-54.

agronomy, forestry, and the various branches of engineering.⁴⁴ With the development of the University of Porto Rico scholarships to the United States decreased as the students could secure the desired training at home. With the extension and improvement of the public school systems the elementary and secondary scholarships have also decreased.⁴⁵

SUMMARY

Secondary education began about the same time as elementary education was established. Since the problem of Porto Rico has not been and is not one of secondary or higher education, but is of elementary, the secondary schools have not developed as fast as the elementary schools. They have developed as fast as they are needed under the present organization, and there is danger of establishing too many secondary schools without having the personnel or equipment to do standard secondary school work. Like the elementary school the secondary schools need reorganization suited to conditions and needs of the pupils who attend them. The University of Porto Rico established by law in 1903 has developed slowly and is taking care creditably of the higher education of the youth of the Island. While the University was being developed, Porto Rican students received their higher and professional education in the United States. They continue to do so to-day to pursue studies in those professions which the Insular University does not yet offer. The work and scope of the University is limited greatly by the lack of funds, being much in need of equipment and of means to extend its usefulness broadcast through the Island.

⁴⁴*Report of the Governor of Porto Rico*, 1911, p. 199.

⁴⁵See Appendix VII. Allotment for Scholarships since 1902, Table II.

CHAPTER XIV

CONCLUSIONS AND PRESENT DAY PROBLEMS

Porto Rican Civilization. The first Commissioner of Education to Porto Rico, reporting on the culture of the people, said: "This people has a civilization that, in many respects, is as far advanced as that of any stable country of Europe or America. It is wide of the mark to think these people lacking in civilization. It is not the absence but the kind of civilization that impairs our progress. The forms of the civilization developed here under Spanish dominion are so thoroughly fixed, so inelastic, that the real difficulty is not so much to impart a new as to break the fetters of the old civilization. Before Jamestown and Plymouth Rock, Porto Rico was a well developed and socially organized community. That some elements of this old civilization are admirable and much to be desired is patent to any student. That others are greatly to be regretted is equally true."¹ Ever since the American occupation one of the most delicate problems has been and is the preservation of the desirable characteristics of the native culture and the introduction of North American culture.

Education in Porto Rico for the Last Two Decades. One who saw Porto Rico twenty-five or thirty years ago and returns after a long absence sees amazing changes. He finds that the life of the Island has completely changed. But one who goes to Porto Rico from the United States for the first time finds a different civilization. He sees wealth among certain classes. He finds English spoken quite generally among the younger generation and signs of progress at every turn. But when he penetrates into all the districts of the Island, mixes with all classes and meets representatives of the one million and three hundred thousand inhabitants, he comes to the conclusion that Porto Rico when compared with the United States is still an undeveloped country with a different civilization. However, if a visit is made not only to Porto Rico, but also to Cuba, other Spanish-American republics and even to Spain, the traveller will see

¹*Report of the Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, 1902, p. 64.*

many common characteristics in their civilizations all of which can be traced to Spain, the mother country. But he will also see many differences and contrasts and the most striking of these, as far as Porto Rico is concerned, is the problem of and the system of public education.

In 1898 a Porto Rican could visit Spain and other Spanish countries and find very little difference in the educational systems and even feel himself at home in their schools. But that is not true to-day. In spite of the progress which all Spanish countries have made since the Spanish-American War, education in Porto Rico stands out distinctly from that of any other country speaking the Spanish language. Four hundred years of Spanish rule and civilization left an imprint which will not be erased and which it is desirable not to erase; twenty-four years of American occupation have given Porto Rico a system of public instruction which is destined to take the best of Spanish civilization and the best of North American civilization and evolve a new culture distinct from that of Spain or other countries speaking the Spanish language, and distinct as well from the civilization of the United States.

The Need of a Clearly Stated Educational Aim. The insular department of education has never had a permanent definite and specific cultural aim for the Island. The schools have been functioning with success, but not knowing clearly what they were supposed to accomplish. The time has come to establish and define a goal. The elementary school as such has a definite, specific aim and so do the secondary school and the university. But the Island as a whole should have a general comprehensive aim and every part of the school system should be focused to its realization. Education is the tool in the hands of the Island to realize that insular aim. Geographical environment as well as circumstances have furnished Porto Rico with excellent opportunities to make of herself a contributing factor to American civilization, provided she knows how to choose that aim and how to direct her forces toward its accomplishment.

Porto Rico's Cultural Aim. The educational experience of the last two decades shows that the Island is on her way toward the creation of a new culture. That new culture is not sufficiently developed to exhibit clearly defined characteristics. Its Spanish elements and its American elements are in the process of amalgamation. They are still quite distinct one from the other. But the history of public education since 1898 is in line with that of the Spanish régime

shows that the process of amalgamation is going on, perhaps at a much more rapid pace than appears at first sight. While this amalgamation toward the production of a new culture is going on, we should have clear aims to work for.

The first one should be the preservation of the best of Porto Rican culture, namely, those characteristics of Spanish culture transferred to, and assimilated in the Island during four hundred years of Spanish rule and dominion, and those characteristics which have evolved from the native soil; the second aim should be the introduction and assimilation of the best of North American culture; and the third aim, the introduction and assimilation of the best of Spanish-American culture from the Rio Grande to the Horn. Porto Rico should be a center for the cultures of the Americas to meet and influence the native culture and each other. It would be a mistake to try to exist isolated, self-satisfied and hostile to foreign influence in the insular environment. It would be a greater mistake to introduce North American culture, copy it and imitate it and at the expense of the native culture, expect to make New Yorkers, Pennsylvanians, Ohioans or what not out of the Porto Ricans. Such an attempt would not only be fundamentally wrong, but it would be futile.

It would be a great pity and loss that Porto Rico with her location, language and culture should miss the opportunity of receiving from and exercising influence upon the rest of Spanish-American countries and upon modern Spain herself. Therefore, the aim of education in Porto Rico should be the creation of a new culture distinctly Porto Rican, adapted to the needs of Porto Rico and for the benefit of Porto Ricans. It should be sufficiently North American to enable the people to understand the United States, to sympathize with the national policies and problems and to prepare them to participate in the national life as citizens, quite as intelligently as the citizens of the different States. It should have an international scope and be in sympathy with Spanish and Spanish-American culture.

Centralization of Administration as the Best Means to Accomplish the Desired Aim. After a careful investigation of educational conditions in Porto Rico in 1898, after a study of the influence of four hundred years of Spanish education, and after even trying for two years a system of schools administered separately by the municipalities, which proved a failure, the authorities in charge of the organization of the school system saw that only a very centralized, insular controlled system of schools could achieve the desired end. Hence

the present system of school administration, headed by the Commissioner of Education, an appointee of the President, with full power to run the schools and linked with every educational activity from the office of the Commissioner to the pupils of the kindergarten. Thus far such a plan has worked and should be continued as long as it will work.

The Office of the Commissioner in Case of Change of Political Status. The status of Porto Rico is likely to be changed in the near future. Therefore it is likely that the time will soon come when the Commissioner of Education will not be an appointee of the President. The office of Commissioner of Education is the most important public office in the Island. The system of education is so organized that he has complete control over public instruction. To a great extent the efficiency of the school system depends on the efficiency of the Commissioner. In the interest of public education, he should be an expert educator of training and experience, who shall have a continuous term of office so that he may bring to bear in the administration of education the accumulated results of experience. Such a man should be chosen irrespective of political parties, religious creed and even, if necessary, of citizenship. Like a great surgeon who has specialized in his profession and may be summoned by any one in the world to practice his surgical skill, the educator is a man who has specialized in the science of education and should be appointed to office on his merits as a professional expert. The Island will be called upon to devise a way for the selection of such an expert and care should be taken that he shall always be an expert educator. With a man so qualified there is no danger in the highly centralized system and it should be continued as long as the right kind of men are available for the post of Commissioner of Education.

Supervision of Instruction. Closely related to the work of the Commissioner is the work of supervision. The present supervisors and assistant supervisors are not technically speaking supervisors. They are administrative officers with very little time to supervise instruction. They have not the time to study the work of supervision or to study the teachers and pupils and are not in a position to introduce methods leading to the improvement of the teachers and the general character and quality of class room activities. Their position should be definitely recognized as administrative and be given the title of Superintendent. Although it is argued that a well trained corps of teachers need no supervision, yet the tendency

in recent years has been the opposite. Supervision of instruction whether by the principal or by a specially trained supervisor is becoming more and more popular. The Normal College of the University should be the center where principals and supervisors are specially trained for the supervision of instruction. The schools are in need of a staff of supervisors under the Superintendents who devote all of their time to visiting a certain number of teachers, who study those teachers and their pupils and who meet with the teachers for conference and study. Such a staff of supervisors would have an opportunity to know their teachers and their pupils and would be able to introduce methods the end of which would be the improvement of the teachers and their work with the child as the ultimate aim.

The Teachers. In order to achieve a common goal as soon as possible with the least loss of energy all those engaged in the common task must cooperate. The Spanish teachers of 1898 could not do that. They had been brought up and educated in a Spanish individualistic atmosphere accustomed to do as they pleased and to act when they pleased irrespective of law. These teachers had to adapt themselves to the new system or leave the profession. Both things happened. Many left or were asked to leave the schools and many prepared themselves all over again to teach in the new system. But these were few and with the extension of the school system more teachers were needed. The progress in the training of teachers grew from a very humble beginning of institute work, through a very deficient normal school course and on with additional requirements from time to time, until to-day when they are trained in the Normal College of the University of Porto Rico. What the teaching occupation lacks in Porto Rico is what it lacks in the United States, namely, professional spirit.

Professional Spirit. The Porto Rico Teachers' Association is rendering excellent service to the teaching profession and to the Island as well through its activities, recruiting every teacher and impressing upon them the worth of their calling. This Association has done and is doing a great deal in creating a professional spirit among the teachers. But among many of the most gifted intellectually the teaching profession is still "a step" to something else which offers a higher remuneration. Considering the increase in academic requirements and the increase in the cost of living in late years, teachers' salaries have not kept pace with these.

In order to attract the best intellect of the Island into the teach-

ing profession and in order that those entering the profession may be willing to go through the years of training for qualification to teach, teaching must be made worthwhile financially. By this is not meant that teachers should hope or aim to get rich, but it is meant that teachers should be worthy of their hire, that they deserve a comfortable living, making it possible for their homes to be examples to their pupils and to society and that ample provision should be made for after years when they can no longer remain in active service. In practically all European countries and Latin American republics the teaching profession is nationalized. The teachers are employees of the State as they should be. Salaries are not high comparatively speaking, but the teachers are assured of a home, a decent living and provision for old age.

The United States is one of the few countries where the teacher has had to shift for himself when he could no longer secure an appointment and even in the United States this is changing to-day. Porto Rico can not demand high intellectual ability and long thorough training unless she is ready to support the teachers as they deserve. When the present and future comforts of the teachers will be assured, teaching will become a permanent profession. Gifted young men and women would offer themselves as recruits and there would be an opportunity to choose the best material. It would also offer an opportunity to make the profession attractive to men. Professional spirit can not be established on sentiment alone, there is an economic factor which must be taken into consideration.

Reorganization. At the present time Porto Rico has an elementary school of eight years and a high school of four years. Why there should be such an organization when the majority of the children receive only a four-year elementary school course, can not be explained. There is no reason for the "eight-four" plan existing in Porto Rico. The only reason is that it has been the prevalent organization in the United States. This study has already shown that such an organization is not adapted to the needs of the Island. It is clear that it was borrowed from the United States, transplanted and imitated, mainly to comply with academic requirements in case Porto Rican pupils completing elementary and secondary education could enter the colleges and universities in the United States.

In other words the interests of the masses of Porto Rican children were and are being sacrificed for those of a very small number who might want to enter college and the university. Such is a very poor

excuse for the introduction and retention until to-day of the "eight-four" plan, and it should be changed. The schools should be reorganized to suit conditions, and in that reorganization the present tendencies in the United States can help us much.

Present Tendencies of Reorganization. The reasons for the "eight-four" organization in the United States are not clear. This distribution of time to elementary and secondary education has not been the result of careful definition of the function of the two types of schools. For the last two decades or more a general popular belief in education has resulted in the establishment of four-year high schools the country over, but this "belief" in secondary education has not been based on a clear definition of the function of the secondary school. Parallel with the popularity of secondary education there has grown a movement toward the reorganization of elementary and secondary education. The results of this movement are generally accepted to-day. It is popularly known as the "six-three-three" organization, that is, an elementary school of six years, a junior high school of three years and a senior high school of three years.

The chief causes for this reorganization may be summarized as follows:

1. Educational leaders have realized that there is a waste of time in the "eight-four" organization and that the elementary school is not preparing for the high school.

2. Educational statistical studies of the last fifteen or twenty years have shown an enormously high rate of pupil mortality beginning at about the sixth grade and continuing through the early years of the high school course, showing that for a large number of children the elementary schools are not fulfilling their purpose.

3. The development of the "scientific method of education" has shown that there is a wide variation in capacity, interests and needs of children in and out of school which demands a corresponding variety in the curriculum of secondary education.

4. There is to-day an increasing appreciation of the fact that during the later years of the common school course, years of early adolescence, most elementary school pupils are going through changes in the nature of a rapid approach to adulthood, requiring changes in many features of the school, among them in the teaching staff.

5. It is argued that the proposed organization is more economical chiefly in buildings and equipment.

Functions of the Schools According to the New Organization. The

new organization, being the result of experiment and study defines the purpose of each of the schools and how it should be accomplished.²

The Elementary School. "The purpose of the elementary school is to provide experience in meeting the common needs of all, regardless of sex, vocation or social status," or in terms of the general aims of life, "To provide that general basis for health, equally desirable for all; to develop that practical efficiency in activities shared by all in daily work and intercourse; to develop those ideas of habits of civics and other forms of group activity of equal value to all; and to cultivate interests and means of recreation common to all." This common training required of every citizen should be realized before the period is reached, when different needs become so prominent that a differentiated curriculum is necessary to meet them. When that period has come the work of the Junior High School should be introduced.

The Junior High School. It is the purpose of the junior high school to continue the common studies necessary to participate in meeting the needs represented by the general life purposes of all and at the same time provide for individual differences. It is the place designed for the child to find himself, to expose and reveal his individual interests. This is done by allowing some choice of subjects during the first year of the course and still more during the second and third so that by the age of fifteen each pupil will be engaged for nearly half of the time in meeting needs which are individually and personally his own and the remaining time is given to meeting needs common to all and appreciated as common by all. Thus the common interests of the group as well as the individual interests are cared for.

The Senior High School. It is the purpose of the Senior High School to prepare for college those who have the capacity for a higher education, and to prepare for a life work those who can not spend more than three years beyond the junior high school. For the latter the high school becomes a vocational school, for the former a preparatory school offering choice of subjects which form a basis for the later directly vocational work awaiting them in the college or professional school.

The Higher Schools. The higher schools are designed for those wishing to postpone their vocational training beyond the high school and thus secure a more scientific and thorough preparation in

²This summary follows closely the discussion by Dr. Bonser in the book already referred to; pp. 61-71.

college, or for those who still follow a general cultural course in college in preparation to pursue one of the professions in the university.

The Need of Reorganization in Porto Rico. As far as Porto Rico is concerned there is no doubt of the need of reorganization of elementary and secondary education. The present tendency in the United States has already had its influence in Porto Rico and the last Commissioner of Education recommended a reorganization based on the "six-three-three" plan. Merely the fact that such is the tendency in the United States is no reason why it should be adopted in the Island where the problems are very different from those on the Continent. To do so would be to err as in 1901 when the "eight-four" plan was adopted.

The "six-three-three" plan, however, has scientific reasons for existing. Those reasons might help Porto Rico in furnishing bases for a special insular organization. As long as the rural schools are on double-enrollment and offering only a four-year course it seems futile to think of reorganization on the "six-three-three" basis. There is no use in adopting a plan when it is not going to be put into operation. The present rural schools do not so much need reorganization as opportunities to offer a more complete course of study with special emphasis on agriculture and those desirable activities which the children are going to do any way at the end of the course. The consolidated rural schools can follow whatever organization is adopted for the urban schools. The "six-three-three" plan can help in the reorganization of the urban schools. Nearly every municipality has now an eight-year elementary school and many have continuation schools.

Reorganization as Applied to Porto Rico. The present elementary and continuation schools are not preparing the children for anything in particular beyond giving them a common school education and at the same time the children are being kept ten years in school. There are some small towns in the Island having very few pupils in the seventh and eighth grades. A six-year elementary school can furnish the common knowledge necessary to all as members of society. The shortening of the eight-year course of study to six years would not make much difference in the general culture of the masses. The funds spent now on the seventh and eighth grades and in the continuation schools could be used to establish junior high schools in towns having a sufficient number of pupils to warrant the undertaking.

At the same time senior high schools could be established in those larger towns having also a sufficient number of pupils to justify them. A system of scholarships can be maintained making it possible for promising pupils who finish the elementary school in the small towns and in the country, to study in the nearest town having a junior high school. The same can be done with junior high school pupils desiring to continue in the senior high school.

Content of the Elementary School Curriculum. The content of the elementary school curriculum should be "made up of those activities in which every one must participate with a like degree of knowledge and with like attitudes and appreciations, in order that there may be a unified, efficient and stable social life."³ During the years from six to twelve the interests, thoughts and feeling of children are more nearly alike than at any other period of their lives and therefore most susceptible to a common appeal. Every child of the Island should have the advantages of such an education. At the same time these first six years should prepare every child continuing his studies for entrance into the junior high school.

Function of the Secondary School in Porto Rico. The children of Porto Rico mature early and rapidly. For a large number of them secondary education should be vocational. It should aim to prepare many to secure a livelihood for themselves and those depending upon them, to serve society well in their vocation and to find in that vocation their own best development. The majority of the children are poor. They are not only anxious to fit themselves to earn a livelihood but they are in actual need of earning something for themselves and their families. A curriculum preparing the child for some definite occupation would furnish the greatest incentive to finish the elementary school and to remain for the junior high school. The average boy or girl does not aim for even a high school education much less a higher education. Even those who aim for the professions consider the years of high schools and professional training too long a time to be spent in preparation.

The average Porto Rican boy or girl wants to cut his course as short as possible to go to work and earn a living. This attitude on the part of many furnishes fertile ground for the success of schools which pretend to prepare for college in two years beyond the eighth grade as it also furnishes fertile ground for the propaganda of so-called colleges in the United States. Such being the attitude among the people the

³Bonser, *op. cit.*, p. 61.

junior high school could render a great service in preparing many of the children to earn a living as soon as possible.

But the interest of secondary education must not all be immediately vocational. The secondary schools should also prepare for college and the university, as there are always a large number of pupils who aspire to be teachers, lawyers, physicians, engineers, agriculturists, and so on. The junior and senior high schools should furnish a preparation which would facilitate the studies of the latter class when they enter the higher schools.

Function of the Secondary Schools in Terms of the Curriculum. In order to make clear the function of the secondary schools we might think in terms of the principles underlying the curriculum. No curriculum of the secondary school can be satisfactory and complete without giving due regard to each of the main objectives of education in a democracy, which according to the report of the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education⁴ are: Health, Command of fundamental processes, Worthy home membership, Vocation, Citizenship, Worthy use of leisure and Ethical character.

Application of These Objectives. Recognition of these objectives means that the curriculum gives due attention to each of them. Health as an objective means that the curriculum should include physical education supplemented by science courses focused on personal and community hygiene. Command of the fundamental processes means that the elementary school should furnish sufficient preparation to enter the secondary schools. Worthy home membership calls for the development of those qualities which make the individual a worthy member of the family rendering and deriving benefit from such membership, which in turn demands emphasis on the social studies and household arts. Citizenship demands emphasis on the social studies.

Vocation as an objective demands that many pupils spend much of their time in specific preparation for a trade or another occupation to be given during the secondary school period. It also demands that those who go beyond the high school pursue studies that serve as a basis for advanced work in the college or university. The worthy use of leisure and ethical character are objectives which deserve special attention in Porto Rico in view of the fact that the environment of the children is anything but healthy ethically. Much

⁴*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 35, pp. 10-11.

emphasis therefore should be given to such subjects as literature, art, music and others so taught as to develop appreciation and sufficient choice for personal and vocational interests.

Constant and Variable Subjects in the Curriculum. The subjects of the secondary school curriculum should be so arranged that those children who can not go beyond the junior high school are prepared to earn a livelihood and can go out into a definite occupation at the end of the ninth grade. Most of the pupils who finish the eighth grade to-day and do not go beyond would be in this class. Pupils of the elementary school who because of over-age or other reasons do not derive due benefit from the instruction there should be transferred to the junior high school to be prepared for a trade or another gainful occupation. The pupils who are going to-day through the high school but not to college would take up work leading to a gainful occupation at the end of the twelfth grade. Those going to college would take the subjects leading directly to the college courses of their special interest.

In the meantime the unification element should not be forgotten and studies on citizenship knowledge and activities should be constant all through the six years of secondary education. The constants can be determined on principle by the needs of the individual as a member of society and by the general aim of the school system. The variables may be determined for the most part by vocational needs and depend on the locality the individual may live in, the opportunity it offers in the various vocations and the abilities of each person concerned.

The Higher Schools. No educational system is complete without a free university at its apex. Free education should not stop with the elementary or secondary schools, but it should go on to college and university grade. A democratic state is under the obligation to provide free higher education to every child who has the intellectual capacity to profit thereby. The higher institutions of learning are the places to train leaders. Leadership should not be the privilege of the few, who because of social, political or economic status are in a position to lead even when short of intellectual or moral capacities, but it should be the right of all. Leadership should be competitive, open to every one intellectually and morally endowed to lead. It is the business of the school system to find that natural endowment, to open the way for its development and to

guide it during the process of training, and it is the business of the State to provide the schools where that training can be secured.

Not until public education is crowned by a free public university can the state say that the doors to the highest service and the noblest personal attainments are open to every one who can show himself or herself capable and worthy to enter them. It is to the credit of the people of Porto Rico that ever since 1770 they have aspired to have a university, as it is also to their credit that under the influence of American ideals of democracy they established and have maintained the present University of Porto Rico. As it stands to-day, the University is only of collegiate grade, very little opportunity being offered for graduate study and research. It is still in the process of realizing its original programme made at the time of its foundation. The realization of that programme and the additions that should be made to it depend on financial support.

The Future Scope of the University. Like the State universities on the Continent, which were founded to serve the people of the particular States, the University of Porto Rico was founded primarily to serve the inhabitants of the Island. But this does not hinder it from fulfilling a greater service, a service greater than that of any of the State universities of the Continent. While the State University is more or less limited to the boundaries of the State, the University of Porto Rico has an international scope. She is so situated geographically that she can unite the two Americas and thus make its field of operation the entire western hemisphere.

Porto Rico as a Meeting Point Between the Two Americas. There is no other American territory so endowed by nature and circumstances to offer the same opportunity as a cultural meeting point between the two Americas as Porto Rico. Cuba is not United States territory. Haiti and Santo Domingo, now occupied by the United States military forces, will not remain so for very long. The Canal Zone is a strip of land maintained chiefly for the purpose of traffic. Its inhabitants are all North Americans and its system of education lacks the Latin-American atmosphere and problems. Porto Rico is the only country in the world where North American ideals are being put into operation in a Latin-American civilization of a high type. There is no other region where the two civilizations can touch each other and influence each other so effectively as in Porto Rico.

Present Intercourse Between the Americas. The spiritual ties of

Spanish America are European, chiefly Spanish and French. Yet, due to geographical position, to United States prestige as a world power, to her wealth and her industries, to her enterprising men and their ability to get results, to her general internal progress and especially to her institutions and progress in popular education, and due also to the commercial relations that are bound to exist between the two Americas, and to the needs of Spanish America, the republics of the south can not ignore their northern neighbor. They see that they can learn much from her. In order to know the United States better, hundreds of Latin-American students and many professors are coming to the northern universities. They are coming in contact with North American life, institutions and ideals. They will go back home and strengthen the ties between the north and the south.

On the other hand, North American scholars are visiting the southern countries and are finding out that there are other things there besides bull fights, revolutions and Indians. They are finding a culture and a civilization worthwhile studying and appreciating. These return to the North and are doing their share in establishing closer relations between the two peoples. But unless the universities of North America make a special effort to attract Spanish-American students, and recognize their academic degrees as does France and Spain, the students who are coming now to the United States will turn to Europe again and study in European universities as they did before the war. Since the close of the war, Spanish-American students are again turning their interest to the French universities where their Bachelor of Arts degree admits them to the professional schools.

Porto Rico as a Center for the Study of Spanish. Two great world languages are spoken in the western hemisphere, English and Spanish. North America is permanently English speaking, Spanish America is permanently Spanish speaking. The likeness of Portuguese to Spanish is such that the former can be included in the latter. Since the war, Spanish has largely taken the place of German in the public schools and colleges of North America. The interest in the study of Spanish is primarily utilitarian, but the mere study of the language has given rise to interest in Spanish culture. Many people are studying Spanish, not only as an equipment to understand and to trade with the Spanish countries, but also for cultural purposes, to know more about Spanish art, history and literature. Porto Rico furnishes a place under the American flag and at the doors of the United States where the best training in the Spanish language can be secured.

The people of Porto Rico speak better Spanish to-day than during the Spanish régime.

A language is correctly spoken in proportion as education is extended to reach the masses and in Porto Rico to-day more attention is being given in the schools to Castilian pronunciation, Spanish literature and general usage than in the Spanish schools. Unless a person can go to reside for a season in Old or New Castile, in such Castilian cities as Valladolid, Burgos, Avila and others, he can not acquire Spanish better in any other place than in Porto Rico. Few people intending to fit themselves to teach Spanish can go to Spain, while many can go to Porto Rico, which is the reason why many Spanish teachers of the United States have prepared themselves in Porto Rico. The Insular University is to-day training Spanish teachers for the schools and colleges of the Continent.

A Center for the Study of English. The interest of the United States in Spanish can well compare with the interest the Spanish Americans have in English. South of the Rio Grande, English is taught in many secondary schools. The University of Porto Rico with her standard colleges of Education and Liberal Arts offers splendid opportunities for Latin Americans to study English in a country with traditions similar to theirs, among a people largely of the same origin and in sympathy with their traditions, culture and institutions, and in a society in which they can mingle without racial differences or prejudice.

Latin-American students find it hard to adapt themselves to North American customs and they actually go through a period of agony when they first come to the United States, especially if they do not have a speaking knowledge of English. Many of them feel that they are not welcomed. They become homesick and return home without having accomplished what they set out to do, when only a little guidance on the part of the colleges and universities would contribute a great deal to their academic success.

Advantage of Environment. A still greater opportunity for Latin-American students is the fact that Porto Rico offers them an American education accredited in the colleges and universities of the North in an environment similar to theirs and without any danger of their becoming so Americanized that they would not feel happy on their return home. Many students come to the United States and when they return home they are actually foreigners in their own country, they have grown out of sympathy with their own peoples. If they

stay at home they have to go through a period of adaptation, but many of them leave their homes forever and thereby destroy their future usefulness for their country. The Porto Rico environment offers similar conditions and problems in a society in a great many respects like theirs. Moreover, they are in an American atmosphere witnessing constantly the efforts being put forth to adapt North American ideals to a Latin-American civilization. Such an experience would equip them to act as interpreters of North American culture to Spanish-American peoples.

A Center for Business Training. The interest of the United States in Spanish is primarily to fit men and women to participate in the commercial relations between the two Americas. Trade with Spanish America is being encouraged more and more and as the southern countries with their immense undeveloped resources are opened to the world the commercial interests will still be greater. Porto Rico offers an opportunity to train men for this purpose among Latin-American people with whom they would have to deal in business relations. At the same time students from the south could come for their training to Porto Rico where there is enough of the American element to come in contact with North American business methods and life. The University of Porto Rico is contemplating establishing a College of Latin-American Trade and Commerce to attract students from the two Americas. Due to lack of funds this college is still an ambition.

A Center for Diplomatic Training. Much of the misunderstanding between the two Americas has been due to the lack of preparation of those who represent the United States in the diplomatic and consular service. The United States is judged to a great extent by her representatives. Their ability to mix with Latin-American peoples and according to Latin-American etiquette, is a great asset to such men. Another handicap of the people in the diplomatic and consular service is the language. The Latin-Americans although critical of the poor use of Spanish enjoy hearing a foreigner use their language correctly.

Again the University of Porto Rico is a center that could be profitably used by the United States to train future diplomats for Spanish America, in a Latin-American atmosphere and among the kind of people with whom they will come in contact in the service. But the United States should give an opportunity to Porto Ricans in the diplomatic and consular service. There are many who are thorough Americans of suitable education and experience who should be recog-

nized and selected for such service. One of the future plans of the University is a College of History and International Law and Diplomacy where special effort will be made to prepare those who desire to enter diplomatic and consular service.

A Center for Agricultural Study and Research. Finally Porto Rico offers a future center for scientific research and study especially in the fields of agriculture and medicine. The soil is rich in yields of tobacco, sugar cane, coffee, fruits and many other tropical products common to the vast areas of undeveloped tropical America. Already students from some of the other West Indies are attending the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts in Mayagüez. This College and the United States Experiment Station have already rendered excellent service to tropical agriculture. These should be developed to minister to the further prosperity of the Island and also to contribute scientific and practical knowledge to the development of all tropical and semi-tropical regions of the Americas.

At the same time North American students interested in tropical agriculture could take their college course or part of it in the University of Porto Rico and thus fit themselves in contact with the practical problems of tropical agriculture. The graduates of the College of Agriculture are preferred by the sugar planters to those who take their training in the North. The latter have to pursue an apprenticeship course before they can render their best service to the companies while the former receive their training in contact with the practical problems.

A Center for Research and Study in Tropical Medicine. The opportunity for research work in tropical medicine is even greater than that of agriculture. There is great need in tropical America for medical progress and sanitary reform. The work of sanitation in Cuba, the Philippine Islands, Porto Rico, Haiti and above all the Panama Canal Zone and some South American ports has overthrown forever the idea held until recently that life in a warm climate was less healthful than in the North and that the death rate must always be greater in the tropics. The Canal Zone, once uninhabitable by the white man, is to-day one of the cleanest and most healthy spots in the American continent. The task of health and sanitation in Porto Rico is as great as that of education. They are so closely related and one so dependent on the other that it is hard to separate them. Like Porto Rico all tropical America has been sadly neglected in health and sanitation. Porto Rico is fighting hard against the

prevalent tropical diseases. The International Health Bureau of the Rockefeller Foundation has sent a Commission to the Island to cooperate in the warfare against disease.

Institute of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene. These conditions have led to the foundation of the Institute of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene. Soon after the American occupation, a Superior Board of Health was organized and a laboratory equipped to make scientific investigations. Success in scientific research was marked by the discovery of the anemia germs by Dr. Bailey K. Ashford. This led to the passage of a law in 1904 which created "The Porto Rico Anemia Commission." Dispensaries were established in various parts of the Island for the treatment of uncinariasis. The work continued until 1912 when the law creating the Institute was passed. Since its establishment the staff of the Institute has been busy in the study of tropical diseases such as uncinariasis, dengue fever, suspected yellow fever, sprue, bubonic plague and others. Valuable information has been given out in numerous investigations.

It is the opinion of Dr. Ashford, who is recognized to-day as one of the world's foremost authorities in tropical diseases, that it should be the policy of the United States to make Porto Rico the center for research and instruction in branches of medical and sanitary science relating to the tropics. This Institute will be closely connected with, if not an integral part of, the College of Medicine of the University of Porto Rico provided for by law, but not yet established because of lack of funds. This college will furnish a center for the study and treatment of tropical maladies, the influence of which can be extended to all tropical America. The North and the South can then meet in Porto Rico for scientific research and study and thereby understand each other's scientific problems and cooperate in solving them.

SUMMARY

The need of inter-American understanding demands relations other than material ones. No matter how different peoples may be in ancestry, education and environment, they may always meet sympathetically on an intellectual basis. Porto Rico offers an opportunity not only as a meeting point for common ideas and amalgamation of different ideals, but also as a place where these ideals can be increased and thereby establish and maintain closer international relations between the two Americas.

It offers a center for the trade of both Americas to meet and thereby establish and maintain closer commercial relations. It offers a center for scientific study and research where scientists from the North and from the South can meet and cooperate in solving problems of health and sanitation. Her bilingual population, her Spanish environment and traditions and her American philosophy and institutions will perpetuate the elements common to both civilizations without loss of contact with either of them. Eminent scholars and publicists from Spain and from Latin America can come to the University of Porto Rico and give lectures to students who understand Spanish perfectly, while distinguished authorities in science, literature, government, politics and law can go from the United States and give lectures in their subjects to those same students who also understand English perfectly. This distinctive opportunity should be exploited in the interest of Pan-Americanism, that it may become a fact and not merely a dream or interesting aspiration.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

SCHOOL CENSUS OF PORTO RICO—DECEMBER, 1864

District	Number of Families	Public Schools		Private Schools		Number of Boys			Number of Pupils Girls			Number of Teachers		Total Salaries Pesos
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Poor	Paying	Total	Poor	Paying	Total	Male	Female	
San Juan...	10,603	21	8	3	1	304	181	485	93	72	165	24	9	10,032
Aguadilla...	13,099	7	6	—	—	117	148	265	103	51	154	7	6	4,050
Arecibo....	13,916	8	7	—	—	128	178	306	56	45	101	8	7	2,750
Caguas....	11,546	10	8	2	—	164	130	294	131	80	211	10	7	4,800
Humacao...	10,814	8	7	—	1	147	137	284	93	45	138	8	7	4,470
Mayaguez...	8,148	4	4	2	1	68	36	104	47	20	67	6	4	1,600
Ponce.....	18,244	13	6	8	6	309	183	492	146	48	194	21	12	5,840
San German	12,447	3	2	1	—	78	88	166	26	36	62	4	2	2,000
Totals.....	98,817	74	48	16	9	1315	1081	2396	695	397	1092	88	54	35,542

APPENDIX II

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS THAT SHOULD HAVE BEEN ESTABLISHED IN PORTO RICO ACCORDING TO THE DECREE OF 1865

Towns	Category of Town	Number of Barrios in Each Town	Number of Superior Schools	First Class Elementary Schools	Second Class Elementary Schools	Number of Incomplete Schools	Number of Infant Schools	Number of Night Schools	Assistant Teachers in Superior Schools	Total Number of Schools	Total Amount of Salaries Pesos
San Juan...	D. S.	7	1	—	—	14	1	1	1	17	5,420
Adjuntas...	2nd.	15	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	4	960
Aguada....	2nd.	16	—	—	1	4	—	—	—	5	1,140
Aguadilla...	D. S.	21	1	—	—	5	1	1	1	8	3,800
Agua de Bue-											
nas.....	2nd.	10	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Aibonito...	2nd.	9	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Añasco....	1st.	23	—	1	—	6	—	—	—	7	1,680
Arecibo....	D. S.	18	1	—	—	4	1	1	1	7	3,620
Arroyo.....	1st.	4	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	2	780

APPENDIX II CONTINUED

Towns	Category of Town	Number of Barrios in Each Town	Number of Superior Schools	First Class Elementary Schools	Second Class Elementary Schools	Number of Incomplete Schools	Number of Infant Schools	Number of Night Schools	Assistant Teachers in Superior Schools	Total Number of Schools	Total Amount of Salaries Pesos
Barran- quitas....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Barros.....	2nd.	17	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Bayamon....	1st.	14	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Cabo-Rojo..	1st.	7	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Caguas.....	1st.	12	—	1	—	5	—	—	—	6	1,500
Camuy.....	2nd.	12	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Carolina....	2nd.	6	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Cayey.....	1st.	20	—	1	—	5	—	—	—	6	1,500
Ceiba.....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Ciales.....	2nd.	9	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Cidra.....	2nd.	14	—	—	1	5	—	—	—	6	1,820
Coamo.....	2nd.	11	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Corozal....	2nd.	12	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Dorado.....	2nd.	5	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Farjardo....	1st.	9	—	1	—	2	—	—	—	3	960
Guainabo...	2nd.	12	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Guayama....	D. S.	11	1	—	—	2	1	1	1	5	3,760
Guayanilla..	2nd.	14	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Gurabo.....	2nd.	9	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Hatillo.....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Hato Grande	2nd.	11	—	—	1	4	—	—	—	5	1,140
Humacao....	D. S.	12	1	—	—	3	1	1	1	6	3,440
Isabela.....	2nd.	12	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Juana Diaz	1st.	21	—	1	—	5	—	—	—	6	1,500
Juncos.....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Lares.....	2nd.	11	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Loiza.....	2nd.	10	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Luquillo....	2nd.	7	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Manati.....	1st.	10	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Maunabo....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	3	780
Mayaguez...	D. S.	28	1	—	—	6	1	1	1	9	3,980
Moca.....	2nd.	12	—	—	1	4	—	—	—	5	1,140
Morovis....	2nd.	14	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Naguabo....	1st.	10	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	2	780
Naranjito...	2nd.	8	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Patillas....	1st.	15	—	1	—	4	—	—	—	5	1,320
Peñuelas....	2nd.	17	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	960
Pepino.....	1st.	25	—	1	—	6	—	—	—	7	1,680
Piedras....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	760
Ponce.....	D. S.	24	1	—	—	6	1	1	1	9	3,980
Quebradillas	2nd.	8	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Rincon.....	2nd.	9	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Rio Grande..	1st.	6	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Rio Piedras.	1st.	6	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Sabana del Palmar....	2nd.	9	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Sabana Grande....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780

APPENDIX II CONTINUED

Salinas.....	2nd.	6	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
San German	1st.	29	—	1	—	7	—	—	—	9	2,160
Santa Isabel	2nd.	7	—	—	1	1	—	1	—	2	600
Toa Alta....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Toa Baja....	2nd.	5	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Trujillo.....											
Alto.....	2nd.	5	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Trujillo.....											
Bajo.....	2nd.	7	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	3	780
Utuaado.....	2nd.	22	—	—	1	5	—	—	—	6	1,320
Vega Alta....	2nd.	8	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	2	600
Vega Baja...	1st.	14	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Yabucoa....	1st.	10	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	4	1,140
Yauco.....	1st.	19	—	1	—	4	—	—	—	5	1,320
Isla de											
Vieques...	1st.	8	—	1	—	2	—	—	—	3	960
Totals.....			7	18	43	200	7	8	7	283	85,460

APPENDIX III

EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS ON THE DIFFERENT SUBJECTS OF THE CURRICULUM USED FOR TEACHERS' COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS FROM 1880 TO 1893.

FOR SUPERIOR TEACHERS

RELIGIÓN.

1. Qué debe hacer el cristiano cuando llega al uso de la razón? Doctrina cristiana. Verdades de nuestra fé. Basta esta para salvarse?.
2. Dios y uno trino. Divinas personas. Cuál de ellas se hizo hombre y con qué fin?
3. Dónde encarnó el Verbo divino y cómo se verificó este misterio?
7. Decálogo. Preceptos que comprende. Fé, esperanza y caridad
8. Religión. Idolatría. Herejía. Superstición. Impiedad. Sacrilegio. Juramento, Blasfemia.
12. La Iglesia Católica. Sus caracteres y jerarquias. Quién ejerce la suprema autoridad en la Iglesia y con qué título?
17. Existencia de Dios y principales atributos. Existencia e inmortalidad del alma humana.
18. Pruebas de la divinidad de la religión cristiana. Milagros. Profesías.
19. Deberes del hombre para con Dios. Necesidad y obligación de dar a Dios culto interno y externo. Debemos también darlo a la Virgen, a los Santos y a sus imágenes y reliquias?
21. Historia Sagrada. Epocas en que se divide. Creación del mundo antes del diluvio.
23. Estado del mundo después del diluvio. Vocación de Abraham. Cómo probó y recompensó Dios la fé y obediencia de este patriarca? De qué es figura el sacrificio de Isaac?
26. Moisés. Aaron. Las plagas. Salidas del cautiverio. Paso del Mar Rojo. Monte Sinaí. Promulgación de la ley. Muerte de Moises.
28. División del reino de Israel a la muerte de Salomón. Caída de Israel y de Judá. Toma de Jerusalem. por Nabucodonosor. Destrucción del templo. Cautividad de Babilonia.

PEDAGOGÍA.

1. Su definición como ciencia y como arte. Su división. Diferencia entre la educación y la instrucción. Fundamento, objeto é importancia de la educación. Partes de la misma. Agentes, extensión y principios mas notables de la educación.
2. Sucinta idea del hombre. Tejidos .Organos. Aparatos y funciones. Clasificaciones de las funciones.
6. Funciones de relación. Aparatos de las sensaciones. Sistema nervioso y sus divisiones. Sistema ganglionar. Nervios y funciones.
7. Cinco sentidos.
9. Objeto e importancia de educación física. etc.
10. Objeto e importancia de la educación intelectual. etc.

11. Memoria. etc.
12. Sensibilidad. etc.
14. Educación religiosa. etc.
15. Dela Instrucción. etc.
17. Fundamentos de los programas de primera enseñanza en sus dos grados, y extensión que convendrá dar a cada asignatura en las diversas clases de escuelas.
18. Objeto de los métodos. Procedimiento y forma de enseñanza. Método general y particular. etc.

GRAMÁTICA.

1. Idioma o language. Gramática: Partes en que se divide y su explicación. Fin de la gramática.
2. Alfabeto. Letras: su división. Sílabas: sus clases. Palabras: su clasificación segun las ideas que representan. Fracción: sus partes. Cuáles son las variables y qué alteración sufren?
4. Nombre: su división en, genérico y propio. Accidentes gramaticales del nombre. Género de los nombres por su significación. Idem por sus terminaciones. Excepciones en cada uno de los casos.
9. Verbo: Su división y accidentes. Modos principales y subordinados, explicando sus diferencias.
11. Verbos regulares e irregulares: clases de los irregulares. Reglas respecto a sus letras radicales, y a sus terminaciones con las excepciones que hay. Ejemplos.
17. Sintaxis: Definición y división. Concordancia: sus clases. Régimen: diferentes clases de régimen. Construcción: su division y ejemplos.

ARIMÉTICA.

1. Nociones preliminares. Adición. Sustracción. Multiplicación. División. Usos de las cuatro operaciones. Problemas.
2. Propiedades generales de los números. Caracteres de divisibilidad por dos y sus potencias; por cinco y sus potencias; por tres, siete, nueve once. Números primos- M. C. D. y M. C. M.
5. Cuadrado y raiz cuadrada de los números enteros, fracciones ordinarias y fracciones decimales. Cubo y raiz cúbica de los números enteros, fracciones ordinarias y fracciones decimales. Propiedades generales de las potencias y raices.
7. Regla de tres simple y compuesta. Regla de interés simple y compuesta. Regla de descuento comercial y racional. Fondos públicos.
8. Repartimientos proporcionales. Regla de sociedad, Regla aligación. Regla conjunta. Regla de falsa posición.

ÁLGEBRA.

9. Objeto del álgebra. Diferencia que existe entre la resolución algébrica numérica de un problema. Definición de coeficiente y exponente igualdad, ecuación e identidad. Definición de término. Clasificación que se hace de las expresiones algébricas segun el número de sus términos.
15. Ecuaciones: Clasificación segun el número de sus incógnitas y el valor de sus exponentes. Principio en se fundan la resolucion de las ecuaciones de primer grado con una sola incógnita. Transposición de términos.

EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS USED AFTER 1893. (Moreno, *op. cit.*, p. 664). BOYS' ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Programas oficiales aprobados por el Gobierno General de las Escuelas públicas de esta provincia.

DOCTRINA CRISTIANA E HISTORIA SAGRADA.

1. Fin del hombre sobre la tierra, y modo de conseguirlo. Qué se entiende por doctrina cristiana y catecismo? Cuantas partes contine y cuáles son?
2. Virtudes teologales. Qué es fé? Su necesidad y objeto.
14. Bautismo. Su definición, institución. Necesidad y ministro de este sacramento. Que efecto causa en el alma?

GEOGRAFÍA.

1. Geografía: Su definición y divisiones, Ciencias auxiliares. de la geografía. Sistemas astronómicos.
2. Cuerpos celestes: su division. Constelaciones: Cuáles son las mas notables. Estrella polar. El Sol: sus propiedades. Volumen y distancia a que se encuentra de nosotros.
6. La Tierra: su figura y sus dimensiones. Polos terrestres. Eje de la tierra. Circulos que se consideran trazados en la tierra. Longitud y Latitud. Mapas: sus clases.
17. América: Descripción general del Nuevo Mundo. Mares, golfos, estrechos, islas, peninsulas, cabos, montes, lagos y rios de América. Estados que comprende la septentrional, la central y la meridional. Razas, idiomas y religiones de América.
18. Oceanía.

Questions 19 to 28 are all on Spain.

CALIGRAFÍA.

1. Qué se entiende por caligrafía?Cuál es su objeto? Partes en que se divide el arte caligráfico. Ciencias auxiliares de la caligrafía.
8. Cómo se determina la posición de la pluma para escribir la letra española segun Iturzaeta. Caracter de la letra que debe enseñarse en las escuelas y porqué.
12. Clasificación de las curvas. Cómo se traza el tercer ejercicio preliminar. del Sr. Iturzaeta?

ORTOLOGÍA.

1. Ortología. Etimología de esta voz. Importancia de su estudio. Partes que comprende el arte de la lectura. Objeto de cada una de ellas.
3. Leer: De cuántas maneras es la lectura? Lectura mental. Lectura oral. Reglas que deben tenerse presente para la lectura oral, o lectura en alta voz.
14. Defectos o vicios de pronunciación que hay que extirpar en la lectura. Tartamudez, balbucencia, ceceo, seseo y acento provincial. Modo de corregir estos defectos o vicios.
23. Forma en que pueden presentarse los escritos. Cualidades que pide la buena lectura del diálogo.
28. Del estilo. Su importancia en la lectura. Diferentes clases de estilo.

APPENDIX IV

PERIODS OF PUBLIC PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN PORTO RICO¹

	Public Schools			Pupils			Expenses		
	For Boys	For Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Person-nel	Mate-rial	Total (pesos)
December 1864.....	74	48	122	2396	1092	3488	35542	1535	36857
June 1867.....	240	56	296	7543	1929	9472	90834	—	90834
July 1869.....	246	67	313	6192	1937	8129	88133	—	88133
October 1878.....	238	91	329	7523	3474	11097	103078	26378	129456
June 1880.....	328	104	432	10736	4482	15218	142454	48704	191158
June 1881.....	372	112	484	18025	6095	24120	186334	70621	256955
After July 1, 1881.....	384	117	501	18025	6095	24120	191424	71245	262669

Porto Rico, July 3, 1881. The Secretary of the Government, Francisco Fontanals y Martinez.
NOTE: Expenses are in pesos.

¹Moreno: *op. cit.* p. 308.

APPENDIX V

SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT, 1883-1899

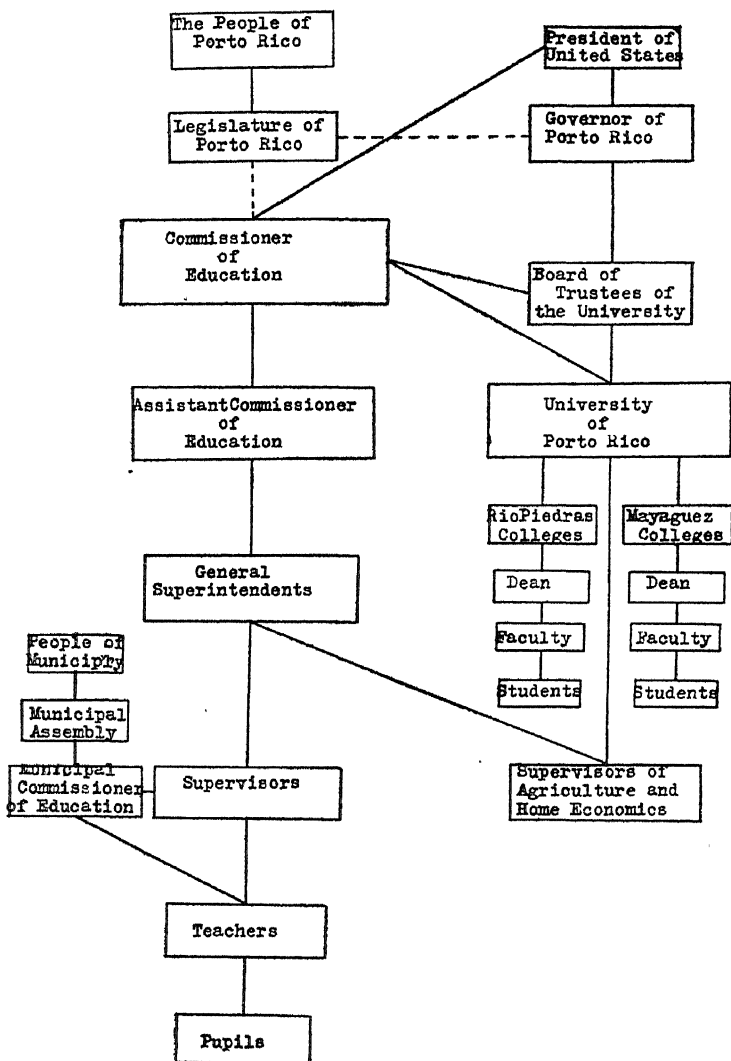
Year	Resident Students	Students in Private Schools allied with the Institute	Home Students not in Residence at any School	Total
1883-84.....	172	170	77	419
1884-85.....	153	163	55	371
1885-86.....	134	235	53	422
1886-87.....	196	190	50	436
1887-88.....	195	224	22	441
1888-89.....	168	134	17	319
1889-90.....	145	99	15	259
1890-91.....	121	103	19	243
1891-92.....	103	92	18	214
1892-93.....	84	85	23	196
1893-94.....	101	118	34	253
1894-95.....	105	131	25	261
1895-96.....	91	151	28	270
1896-97.....	91	208	11	310
1897-98.....	78	216	18	312
1898-99.....	32	25	—	57
Total.....	1,969	2,349	465	4,793

Number of diplomas granted from the establishment of the institute until its suppression, conferring bachelor's degree, 315.¹

¹56th Cong. S. D. 363, p. 142.

APPENDIX VI

DIAGRAM OF ADMINISTRATION
PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM OF PORTO RICO



APPENDIX VII

TABLE I

EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES YEAR ENDING, JUNE
1889 TO 1920

Year	Popula- tion of Porto Rico	School Popula- tion	Enroll- ment	Insular Revenues	Expendi- tures for Education	Expendi- tures for Education by Insular Government	Expendi- tures for Education by School Boards
1899	953,243	322,393	29,172	—	\$288,098.00	\$288,098.00	—
1900	964,746	325,002	24,392	1,831,094	377,111.00	294,048.00	\$83,063.00
1901	976,841	328,194	38,000	2,074,894	530,662.00	418,125.00	112,537.00
1902	988,007	332,497	61,869	2,282,152	753,545.00	635,335.00	118,210.00
1903	1,000,907	336,228	70,216	2,305,935	803,879.00	643,906.00	159,973.00
1904	1,012,202	340,926	61,270	2,263,216	873,603.00	691,020.00	182,583.00
1905	1,023,717	345,805	63,413	2,520,272	878,868.00	674,510.00	204,358.00
1906	1,035,429	350,111	68,828	2,554,554	905,929.00	659,658.00	246,271.00
1907	1,047,699	354,721	72,052	3,538,241	918,516.00	660,657.00	257,859.00
1908	1,060,477	360,551	80,167	3,371,541	1,093,311.00	750,537.00	340,774.00
1909	—	—	105,125	3,180,111	1,427,451.00	989,965.00	437,486.00
1910	1,118,012	390,640	121,453	3,451,267	1,371,490.00	952,329.00	419,161.00
1911	—	—	145,525	3,986,746	1,394,380.00	990,689.00	403,691.00
1912	—	—	160,657	4,369,164	1,518,779.00	1,132,344.00	386,435.00
1913	—	—	161,785	4,382,544	1,814,829.00	1,235,485.00	579,344.00
1914	—	—	207,010	4,753,902	2,698,263.00	1,970,098.00	728,165.00
1915	1,200,000	419,282	168,319	3,727,910	2,070,496.00	1,477,816.00	592,680.00
1916	—	—	151,562	4,133,158	1,840,016.00	1,348,306.00	491,710.00
1917	1,223,981	427,666	152,063	4,957,684	2,106,389.00	1,518,322.00	588,067.00
1918	1,223,981	427,668	141,598	4,741,710	2,325,802.00	1,594,855.00	730,947.00
1919	1,263,474	434,381	160,794	5,456,400	2,467,703.29	1,788,271.79	679,431.50
1920	1,297,772	453,446	184,991	—	3,150,761.25	2,464,318.10	686,443.15

TABLE III
EXPENDITURES CLASSIFIED PER CAPITA COST, YEARS ENDING
JUNE 1889 TO 1919

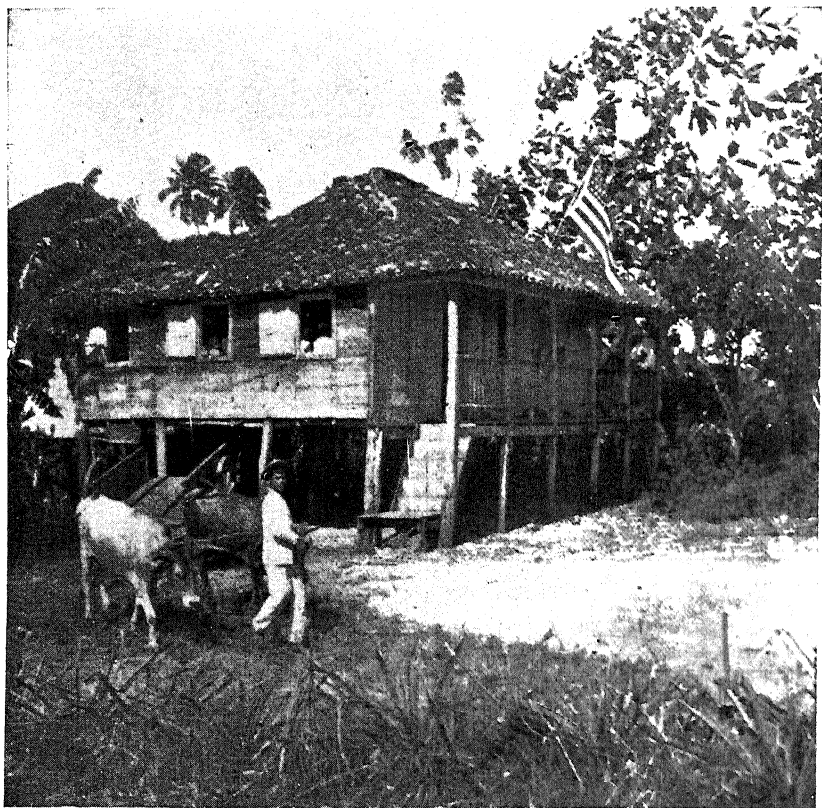
Year	Cost of Books and Supplies per Pupil Enrolled	Total for Education per Pupil	Elementary Education per Pupil			Cost of Secondary Education per Pupil	Cost of Education per Inhabitant
			Total Cost	Instruction and Maintenance	Buildings and Sites		
1899	\$1.71	\$ 9.88	\$ 9.40	\$ 9.40	—	—	\$0.302
1900	1.44	15.46	14.26	14.06	\$ 0.20	—	.391
1901	1.07	13.61	12.45	11.98	.47	—	.543
1902	.65	12.18	11.34	8.59	2.65	—	.763
1903	.58	11.45	10.28	9.24	1.04	—	.797
1904	.33	14.26	12.00	10.79	1.21	—	.863
1905	.50	13.86	11.52	10.70	.82	—	.850
1906	.37	13.16	11.90	10.99	.91	—	.875
1907	.50	12.75	11.67	11.06	.41	—	.877
1908	.39	13.64	12.58	10.51	2.07	—	1.031
1909	.41	13.58	12.71	10.74	1.97	68.94	1.177
1910	.39	11.29	10.63	9.74	.89	42.11	1.277
1911	.37	9.58	9.30	8.79	.51	45.97	1.247
1912	.41	9.45	8.96	8.52	.44	34.62	1.358
1913	.47	11.12	10.20	9.22	.98	25.62	1.623
1914	.63	13.03	12.67	10.77	1.90	64.67	1.762
1915	.54	13.68	11.75	10.00	1.75	45.31	1.725
1916	.30	12.14	10.07	0.98	.99	54.11	1.533
1917	.43	13.85	12.07	11.07	1.00	34.10	1.720
1918	.77	15.39	14.16	11.81	2.35	34.80	1.930
1919	.523	15.57	13.40	11.43	1.97	37.02	1.940

TABLE IV
COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL OPERATION OF
SCHOOL BOARDS FOR THE YEARS OF WHICH DATE IS AVAILABLE

Year	Balance on hand June 30	Total Income including Balance	Total Disbursements	Indebtedness from Former years
1903-4	\$ 8,831.93	—	—	\$51,368.65
1904-5	25,396.27	\$ 245,760.53	\$220,364.26	27,342.14
1905-6	43,878.24	304,963.94	260,815.70	9,215.27
1906-7	88,592.75	346,451.79	257,859.04	1,911.75
1907-8	116,438.16	504,481.26	388,043.10	—
1908-9	127,213.59	564,699.57	437,485.98	—
1909-10	143,074.26	562,236.15	419,161.89	—
1910-11	181,622.07	585,613.64	403,691.57	—
1911-12	269,881.17	700,862.38	430,981.21	—
1912-13	265,920.43	845,264.38	579,343.95	—
1913-14	273,566.18	1,001,731.48	728,165.30	—
1914-15	319,475.18	912,154.72	592,679.54	—
1915-16	160,009.21	812,422.89	552,353.68	—
1916-17	554,742.40	1,211,018.45	656,276.05	—
1917-18	367,028.98	1,205,103.55	838,074.57	—
1918-19	320,236.09	1,075,159.91	(1) 754,923.82	—

¹Includes \$75,492.32 retained by the treasurer of Porto Rico to pay installments of principal due on loans. The total expenditures for the year are \$679,431.50

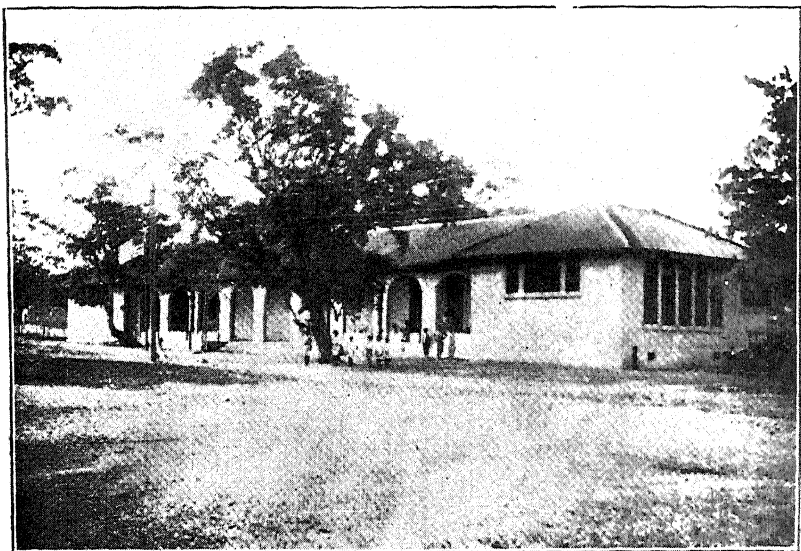
APPENDIX VIII
ILLUSTRATIONS OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS



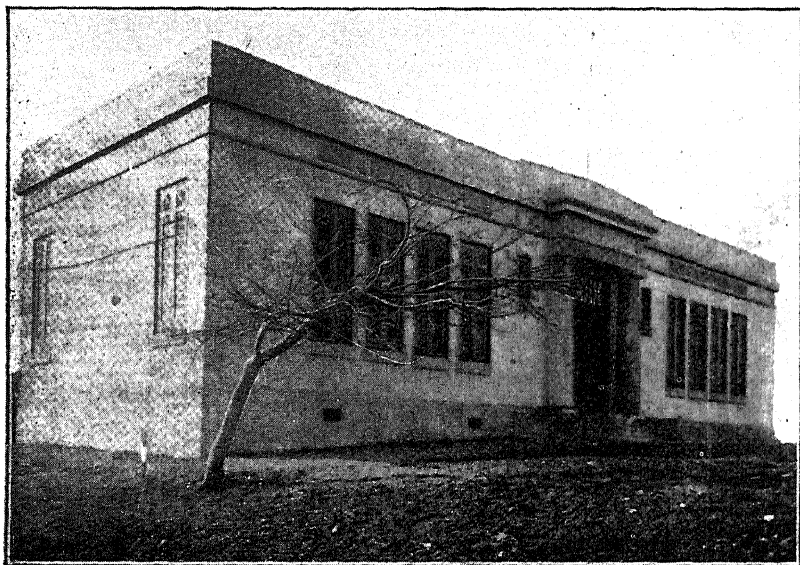
A RURAL SCHOOL AT THE TIME OF THE AMERICAN OCCUPATION



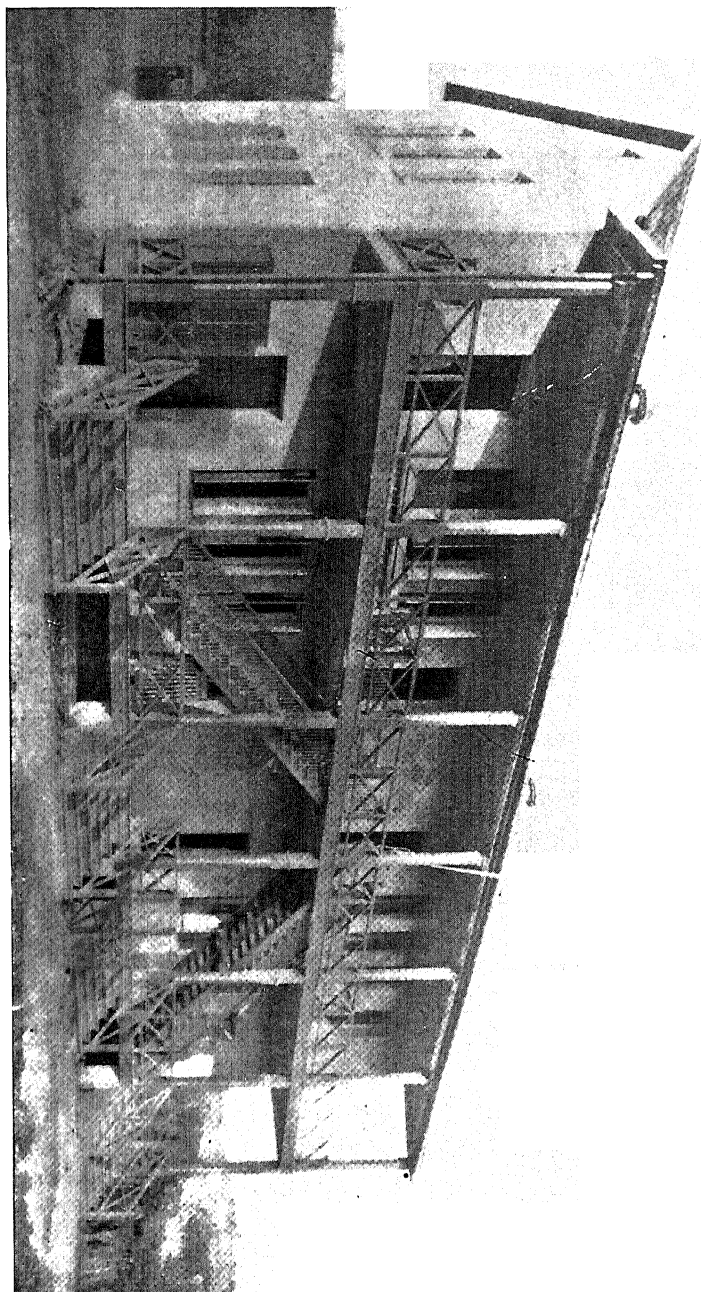
A TYPICAL RURAL SCHOOL AT THE TIME OF THE AMERICAN
OCCUPATION. PORTO RICO.



WOODROW WILSON CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOL, AGUIRRE, SALINAS.
The new type of rural schools now being introduced.

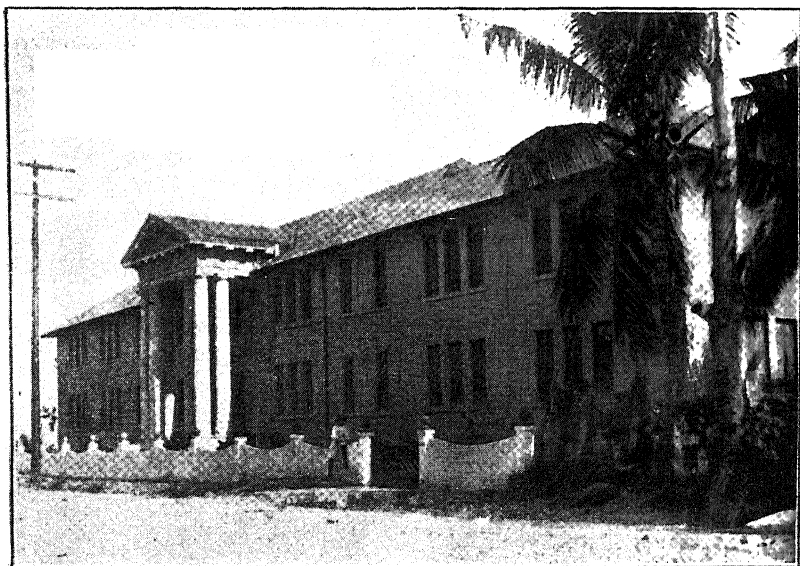


DR. J. C. BARBOSA CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOL, VIEQUES, P. R.

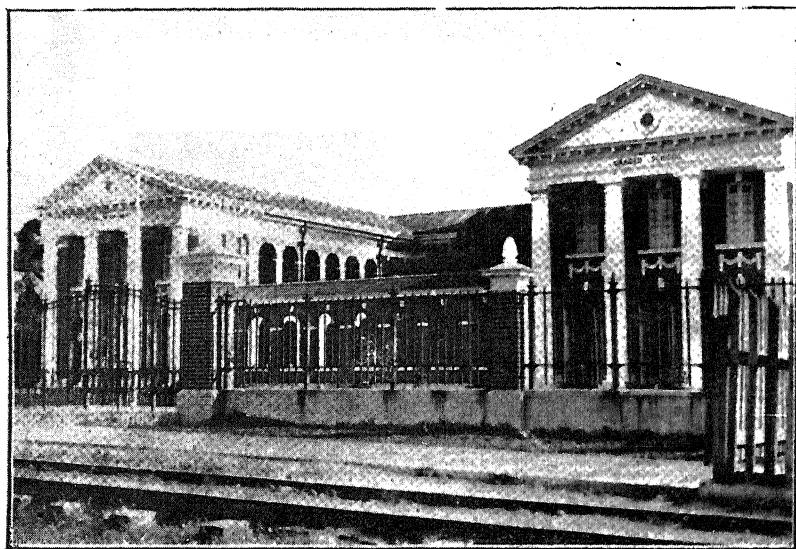


LONGFELLOW GRADED SCHOOL, SAN GERMAN, P. R.

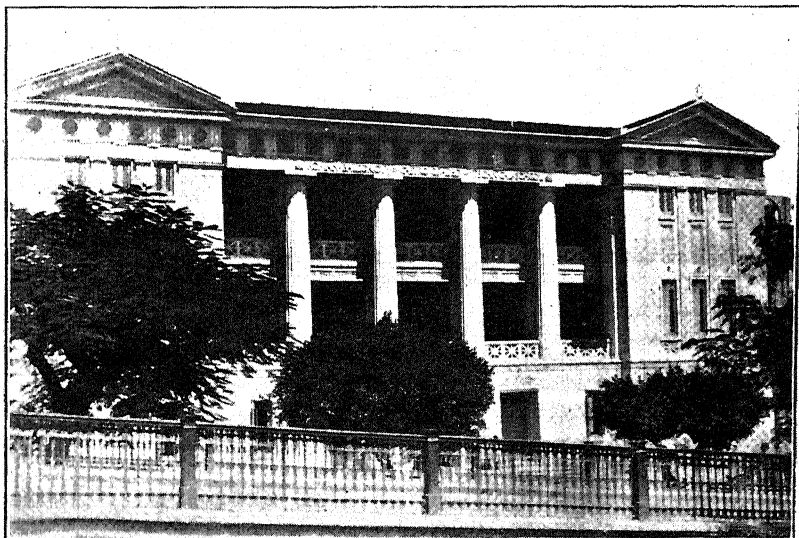
Built by the Department of Education of Porto Rico. Completed October 19, 1901.
The type of school buildings for urban schools first built after the American occupation.



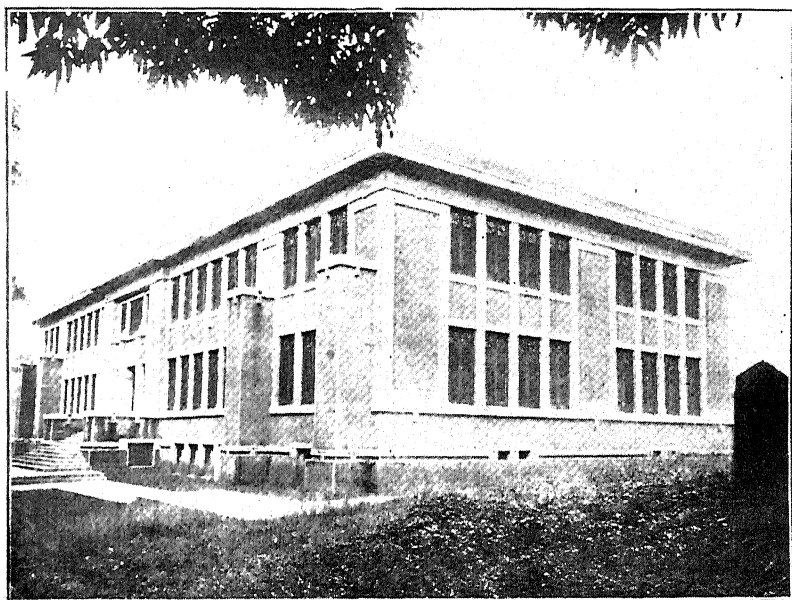
PONCE DE LEON GRADED SCHOOL, HUMACAO, P. R.
Old four-room type remodeled and enlarged



RAAEAL M. LABRA GRADED SCHOOL, SANTURCE, P. R.



ROMÁN BALDORIOTY DE CASTRO GRADED AND TECHNICAL SCHOOL,
SAN JUAN, P. R.



MAYAGUEZ HIGH SCHOOL, MAYAGUEZ, P. R.

APPENDIX IX

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN
1898-1899 AND 1918-1919

	1898-1899			1918-1919			In-crease in Teachers	In-crease in Pupils
	Number of Teach- ers	Attend- ance	Barrios Without Schools	Number of Teach- ers ²	Enroll- ment	Barrios Without Schools		
Adjuntas.....	6	130	12	41	2,351	0	35	2,221
Aguada.....	7	232	14	25	1,568	1	18	1,336
Aguadilla.....	8	542	13	57	3,237	0	40	2,695
Aguas Buenas.....	5	175	6	19	1,090	1	14	915
Aibonito.....	6	222	5	27	1,464	0	21	1,242
Añasco.....	7	315	19	38	2,102	2	31	1,787
Arecibo.....	11	683	4	108	5,457	0	97	4,774
Arroyo.....	3	201	6	22	1,070	0	19	869
Barceloneta.....	6	230	—	25	1,322	0	19	1,092
Barranquitas.....	4	143	5	24	1,299	0	20	1,156
Barros.....	5	181	13	51	3,504	0	46	3,323
Bayamón.....	10	468	15	77	3,474	0	67	3,006
Cabo Rojo.....	7	325	3	51	2,617	0	44	2,292
Caguas.....	9	417	5	81	4,162	0	72	3,745
Camuy.....	5	206	9	34	1,795	1	29	1,589
Carolina.....	6	218	9	41	2,637	0	35	2,419
Cayey.....	8	573	16	45	1,951	3	37	1,378
Ceiba included in ¹								
Fajardo.....	—	—	—	15	675	0	15	675
Ciales.....	7	245	—	40	2,411	0	33	2,166
Cidra.....	5	184	9	27	1,133	1	22	949
Coamo.....	9	484	3	49	2,847	0	40	2,363
Comerio.....	7	331	—	29	1,621	0	22	1,290
Corozal.....	5	211	8	29	1,643	0	24	1,432
Dorado.....	4	119	4	18	858	0	14	739
Fajardo.....	13	597	12	49	1,863	0	36	1,266
Guainabo ¹								
Included in								
Bayamon.....	—	—	—	24	1,078	0	24	1,078
Guanica included ¹								
in Yauco.....	—	—	—	26	1,203	0	26	1,203
Guayama.....	9	391	5	57	2,593	0	48	2,202
Guayanilla.....	5	157	12	34	1,637	0	29	1,480
Gurabo.....	5	258	6	25	1,482	0	20	1,224
• Hatillo.....	6	191	3	26	1,539	0	20	1,348
Hormigueros.....	4	68	3	14	582	0	10	514
Humacao.....	11	411	2	55	2,717	0	44	2,306
Isabela.....	8	225	7	38	2,151	0	30	1,926
Jayuya included ¹								
in Utuado.....	—	—	—	25	1,587	0	25	1,587
Juana Diaz.....	13	475	12	45	2,289	4	32	1,814
Juncos.....	6	215	5	31	1,707	0	25	1,492
Lajas.....	6	99	6	33	1,692	0	27	1,520
Lares.....	10	253	4	51	3,236	1	41	2,983
Las Marias.....	8	125	6	30	1,645	0	22	1,520
Las Piedras.....	3	105	6	20	1,088	0	17	938

APPENDIX IX CONTINUED

Loiza.....	7	219	4	36	1,880	0	29	1,661
Luquillo included in Fajardo ¹	—	—	—	15	883	0	15	883
Manatí.....	8	408	3	42	2,312	0	34	1,904
Maricao.....	4	119	4	27	1,432	0	23	1,313
Maunabo.....	4	150	—	19	918	0	15	768
Mayagüez.....	33	1178	4	102	4,740	0	69	3,562
Moca.....	6	146	7	24	1,631	0	18	1,485
Morovis.....	7	259	9	28	1,612	0	21	1,353
Naguabo.....	5	272	6	33	1,591	0	28	1,319
Naranjito.....	5	152	4	20	1,141	0	15	989
Patillas.....	6	232	2	30	1,401	0	24	1,169
Peñuelas.....	8	263	8	32	1,485	0	24	1,222
Ponce.....	38	1748	—	192	9,554	0	154	7,806
Quebradillas.....	4	274	5	27	1,292	0	23	1,018
Rincón.....	5	74	5	17	978	0	12	904
Rio Grande.....	7	356	7	34	1,863	1	27	1,507
Rio Piedras.....	5	294	8	50	2,897	0	45	2,603
Sabana Grande....	5	210	4	32	1,417	1	27	1,207
Salinas.....	3	118	5	32	1,665	0	29	1,547
San German.....	12	590	10	60	3,334	0	48	2,744
San Juan.....	15	1113	—	174	8,030	0	159	6,917
San Lorenzo.....	5	230	7	32	1,856	0	27	1,626
San Sebastian.....	8	326	19	39	2,518	2	31	2,192
Santa Isabel.....	6	228	4	21	898	0	15	670
Toa Alta.....	4	167	5	24	1,335	0	20	1,168
Toa Baja.....	4	184	2	24	1,119	0	20	935
Trujillo Alto.....	4	103	4	19	1,006	0	15	903
Utuado.....	9	262	—	68	4,306	0	59	4,044
Vega Alta.....	5	192	4	21	1,049	0	16	857
Vega Baja.....	8	303	9	35	2,011	0	27	1,708
Vieques.....	6	166	5	25	1,226	0	19	1,060
Villalba included in Juana Díaz ¹	—	—	—	24	1,195	2	24	1,195
Yabucoa.....	7	450	5	48	2,485	0	41	2,035
Yauco.....	15	672	—	70	3,608	0	55	2,926
Culebra.....	—	—	—	3	143	0	3	143
Total.....	525	21,873	426	3,035	159,125	20	2,510	137,252

¹Not a separate municipality in 1898-1899. Reported as barrio of town written opposite.²Included 83 night school teachers.

APPENDIX X

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